

Circular of information

Bd.: 1887, Nr. 1 - 3

Washington, DC 1887

Paed.th. 830-1886/87

urn:nbn:de:bvb:12-bsb11869996-3

Paed. Jk. *75093*

830 Circulars

CIRCULARS OF INFORMATION

OF THE

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

No. 1-1887.

THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY: A CONTRIBUTION TO THE
HISTORY OF HIGHER EDUCATION, WITH SUGGESTIONS FOR ITS
NATIONAL PROMOTION. BY HERBERT B. ADAMS, PH. D.
(HEIDELBERG), ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY
IN THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1887.

Genl. 1210

CIRCULARS OF INFORMATION

OF THE

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

No. 1-1887.

THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY: A CONTRIBUTION TO THE
HISTORY OF HIGHER EDUCATION, WITH SUGGESTIONS FOR ITS
NATIONAL PROMOTION. BY HERBERT B. ADAMS, PH. D.
(HEIDELBERG), ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY
IN THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1887.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Letter of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior.....	7
First Endowment of an American College.....	11
Academia Virginiensis et Oxoniensis.....	11
The Virginians vote for the Higher Education	12
A Word in Berkeley's Defence.....	13
Why Free Schools and the College were delayed	14
Royal Endowment by William and Mary	14
Colonial Endowment.....	15
Scholarships	16
Boyle's Endowment of Indian Education	16
Motives for founding the College	17
Organization and Government.....	18
The Faculty of Instruction.....	19
Professor Hugh Jones.....	21
Origin of Williamsburg	22
Plan of the City	23
Appearance of the College	24
A Picture of the Town and Capitol.....	25
Town and College	26
A School of Statesmen	26
Washington made Surveyor by William and Mary College.....	30
Washington acquires 70,000 Acres of Land.....	31
Connection with the Potomac and James River Companies.....	33
Relation of Washington's Enterprise to Education	34
Washington the Chancellor of William and Mary College.....	34
Jefferson's Relation to William and Mary College	36
Jefferson's Plan of Education for Virginia	37
Jefferson remodels the Curriculum of William and Mary.....	38
Jefferson studies European Universities.....	39
Influence of the College of Geneva upon Jefferson.....	40
Influence of the Geneva Project upon Washington	41
Washington's Idea of a National University	43
Washington's University Idea compared with Jefferson's	46
Washington's Views of Military Education	47
Practical Significance of West Point	48
Influence of William and Mary upon the South	48
Number of Students at William and Mary, 1801-1861	49
Influence of William and Mary upon Kentucky and Tennessee.....	51
Influence of President Dew	54
The general Plan of Instruction in 1830.....	56
Causes of the Decline of William and Mary.....	56
Proposed Removal to Richmond in 1824.....	58
Jefferson's Rival Policy	59

	Page.
Triumph of the University of Virginia	61
Destruction of William and Mary College in the Civil War.....	61
Northern Tribute to William and Mary College	62
Present Condition of William and Mary College	64
Question of Removal: Alexandria or Richmond	66
Practical Lessons from the History of William and Mary College.....	67
The Higher Education is Democratic and Representative.....	68
The Merit System in the Higher Education of New York	70
The University of the State of New York.....	70
The Merit System at the Johns Hopkins University	72
A National Tendency in the Higher Education.....	73
The Promotion of Higher Political Education.....	75
Idea of a Civil Academy in Washington	76
Centenary of the Inauguration of the Constitution, 1889	81

APPENDIX.

A Bibliography of the History of William and Mary College	84
Letter from President Ewell	88

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
The Bruton Parish Church	22
Plan of Williamsburg, Va., 1887	23
Main Street, Williamsburg, from the college windows	24
William and Mary College before the fire of 1859	24
William and Mary College, as rebuilt in 1859	66
William and Mary College, 1887	66
"Apollo Room," old Raleigh Tavern	86

LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., January 20, 1887.

The Honorable the SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C.:

SIR: The history of the higher education in the United States deserves organized inquiry and national attention. The origin, development, academic status, and practical usefulness of many of our older and better institutions of learning are scarcely known beyond their own scholastic environment. Documentary and manuscript material for such educational history and statistics is abundant, although often widely scattered, as will be seen by an examination of the bibliography appended to the present sketch.

The College of William and Mary, founded in 1693 by royal grant, and long supported by popular legislation in Virginia, has been suffered to decline almost to ruin since the civil war, which destroyed the greater part of its property. The oldest college in the South, in fact the oldest in the country with the exception of Harvard University, has been left to decay, while the latter institution, with which William and Mary College used to share the annual income of the bequest by Robert Boyle, the English philosopher, has lately celebrated its 250th anniversary amid general rejoicing, with the President of the United States and representatives of American and European universities to do honor to the occasion. The old college at Williamsburg, which gave Washington his first degree as civil engineer and to which he gave his last public service as chancellor, the college which trained in law and politics Thomas Jefferson, Governor Randolph, Chief Justice Marshall, and nearly all of the Virginia statesmen of the revolutionary and formative periods in our Federal history, has not now a single student. Its classic halls are closed and deserted. From a once flourishing faculty, which early and ably represented both history and political science with other liberal arts, only the president, who is also professor of mathematics and physics, now remains. At the opening of every academic year, in October,

Doctor Ewell causes the chapel bell to be rung, reminding Williamsburg that the ancient college still lives. To friends of the higher education in all of our States this fact will echo as a note of warning against public neglect and legislative indifference toward higher institutions of learning.

The present monograph has been prepared by Dr. Herbert B. Adams, the head of the Department of History and Political Science at the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, in connection with his more extended inquiry for the Bureau of Education respecting the study of history in American colleges and universities.

This special inquiry is, however, not designed to be a special plea for the College of William and Mary, whose claim for reimbursement for damages suffered at the hands of undisciplined and straggling soldiers has more than once been presented to Congress, and more than once favorably reported by the Committee on Education and Labor, sustained by the opinions of lawyers and Federal officers. The primary objects of the present investigation have been to discover the historical beginnings of the higher education at the South; to trace the causes of the early prosperity of William and Mary College; to show its influence upon Virginia statesmen and the Southern States, its relation to the university ideas of Jefferson and Washington, and its significance to the whole country; to point out the causes of the decline of William and Mary College; to explain the rise of the University of Virginia, and the necessity of popular support for the higher education.

The most practical of all results from this historical study of William and Mary College is the suggestion of a possible revival in the city of Washington and throughout the country of the original Virginia idea of political education, which made Williamsburg a school of statesmen who were fitted in the college-capital to prepare the so-called "Virginia plan," from which our present Constitution grew. It is the idea of intimate organic connection between Education and Government in a municipal environment.

The promotion of political education by connection on the one hand with the people, and on the other with the administration of State and Nation, is an idea worthy of consideration in this centennial year of our Constitution, which was founded upon political wisdom and Federal democracy. In December, 1886, it was proposed, at a meeting in Philadelphia of delegates from the various States and Territories in the Union, to create a suitable memorial commemorative of the Constitution. Doctor Adams suggests a civil academy in the City of Washington for the practical training of representative college graduates appointed to government fellowships for two years from Congressional districts. He would combine, at the national capital, the West Point idea and the Williamsburg idea for the highest political education, and apply the results to the general improvement of civic life throughout the country. This eminent scholar writes with the freedom of one

who understands as well as loves his subject, and his article will commend itself to the hearty approval of all interested in American learning, in the history of our country, and in the faithful record of the first steps in American education.

In view of these facts I recommend the publication of the paper as a Circular of Information. I have the honor to be,

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner.

Approved.

L. Q. C. LAMAR,
Secretary.

THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

FIRST ENDOWMENT OF AN AMERICAN COLLEGE.

In 1619—one year before the Pilgrim Fathers came to the land named New England by Captain John Smith—Sir Edwin Sandys, president of the Virginia Company in old England, moved the grant of ten thousand acres of land for the establishment of a university at Henrico. The proposed grant, which was duly made, included one thousand acres for an Indian college; the remainder was to be “the foundation of a seminary of learning for the English.” The very same year the bishops of England, at the suggestion of the King, raised the sum of fifteen hundred pounds for the encouragement of Indian education. Thus, by the combined authority of church and state, was anticipated by more than two centuries the endowment of such institutions as are now represented by the Hampton School and by the University of Virginia.

It was not from lack of generosity or good-will toward the cause of higher education and the improvement of the Indians, that these, the earliest of all American endowments, bore no immediate fruit beyond the subscription of one hundred and fifty pounds in 1621, for a preparatory or collegiate school at Charles City, and the appropriation of one thousand acres of land, with five servants and an overseer to improve the same. The Virginia Company was thoroughly in earnest with regard to its educational project. Tenants were sent over to occupy the university lands, and Mr. George Thorpe, a gentleman of His Majesty's Privy Chamber, came over to be the superintendent of the university itself. This first beginning of philanthropy toward the Indians and of educational foundations for the English in America was suspended by reason of the Indian massacre, in the spring of 1622, when Mr. Thorpe and three hundred and forty settlers, including tenants of the university, were cut off by an insurrection of savages.

ACADEMIA VIRGINIENSIS ET OXONIENSIS.

It was only two years after this terrible catastrophe that the idea of a university in Virginia was revived. Experience with treacherous Indians suggested that the institution should be erected upon a secluded, sheltered site—an island in the Susquehanna River. The curious trav-

eller, glancing at that charming river view to the northwest as he crosses to Havre de Grace on the Pennsylvania Railroad, may see this island-retreat in the foreground, serving now to support the piers of the Baltimore and Ohio bridge. The island was actually granted in 1624 for the "Foundinge and maintenance of a university, and such schools in Virginia as shall there be erected, and shall be called *Academia Virginiensis et Oxoniensis*."¹ Such a refuge for learning in Virginia reminds the student of that river-encircled monastery, called Lindisfarne, among the savage Northumbrians. If one should continue his journey to Charlottesville, and to the present University of Virginia, he would be again reminded of the old monastic system of seclusion and protection from the dangers of the world. It was, perhaps, a pleasant irony of fate which led the free-thinking Jefferson to imitate the ground-plan of the monastic schools of Europe, when he laid the foundations of real university education in Virginia and America.

The project for a university called *Academia Virginiensis et Oxoniensis*, upon that island refuge in the Susquehanna River, failed like the original project for a university at Henrico. The plan was broken off by the death of its chief advocate and promoter, Mr. Edward Palmer. But the idea of a university for Virginia was not lost; it slumbered on during the next generation, which was too busy repairing its material losses, and in strengthening its colonial position, to think of the higher education.

THE VIRGINIANS VOTE FOR THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

In 1660, the colonial Assembly of Virginia took into their own hands the project of founding educational institutions within their borders. The motive of the Virginians was precisely the same as that of the great and general Court of Massachusetts, when it established Harvard College, and grammar schools to fit youth "for ye university." The Virginians voted "that for the advance of learning, education of youth, supply of the ministry, and promotion of piety, there be land taken upon purchases for a Colledge and free schoole, and that there be, with as much speede as may be convenient, houseing erected thereon for entertainment of students and schollers."² It was also voted in 1660 that the various commissioners of county courts take subscriptions on court days for the benefit of the college, and that the commissioners send orders throughout their respective counties to the vestrymen of all the parishes for the purpose of raising money from such inhabitants as "have not already subscribed."

¹ This novel point in the educational history of Virginia was first suggested to the writer by President D. C. Gilman's Phi Beta Kappa oration at Cambridge, Mass., July 1, 1886. The original authority upon the point is Neill's *Virginia Vetusta*, 183.

The mention of the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Harvard University recalls the fact that the parent chapter of this distinguished body was organized in Williamsburg, Va., at William and Mary College, December 5, 1776.

² Hening. *Statutes of Virginia*, ii, 25.

It appears from the record of this legislation in Hening's Statutes of Virginia that already, in 1660, "His Majestie's Governour, Council of State, and Burgesses of the present grand Assembly have severally subscribed severall considerable sumes of money and quantityes of tobacco," to be paid upon demand after a place had been provided and built upon for educational purposes.¹ A petition was also recommended to Sir William Berkeley, then governor of Virginia, that the King be petitioned for letters patent authorizing collections from "well-disposed people in England for the erecting of colledges and schooles in this countrye."² This action of the Virginians in 1660 ought to be taken as much better evidence of an early regard for education in that colony than the well-known saying of Governor Berkeley would seem to indicate. In reply to an inquiry by the lords commissioners of trades and plantations respecting the progress of learning in the colony of Virginia, Berkeley said, "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing, and I hope we shall not have these hundred years."³

A WORD IN BERKELEY'S DEFENCE.

This answer by a crusty old governor has been quoted perhaps too often as an index of the real sentiments of colonial Virginia toward the cause of education. Not only is the tone of popular legislation entirely opposed to the current view, but Berkeley's own acts should modify our judgment of his words. He actually subscribed, with other gentlemen of the colony, for "a Colledge of students of the liberal arts and sciences." Undoubtedly Sir William did not believe in popular education as it is now understood. If he had done so, he would have been much in advance of his time. He believed in the higher education and in home training. Regarding elementary instruction, he said that Virginia pursued "the same course that is taken in England out of towns, every man, according to his ability, instructing his children. We have forty-eight parishes, and our ministry are well paid, and by consent, should be better if they would pray oftener and preach less." Here is an excellent type of John Bull. This growling, grumbling country squire would have been the first to subscribe for an increase in the parson's salary or for a "free school" in his own parish.

The times were not yet ripe for classical education in Virginia, for that was what the term "free school" meant in the seventeenth century. It was free in the sense of teaching the liberal arts, preparatory to college training. In old England, and in her colonies, free schools⁴

¹ Hening, ii, 37.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 30.

³ Answers of Sir William Berkeley to the inquiries of the lords commissioners of foreign plantations, printed in full in Hening, ii, 511-517.

⁴ For illustrations of this point, see *Johns Hopkins University Studies*, vol. i, No. 12, "Free Schools of South Carolina," by B. F. Ramage; and vol. iii, Nos. 2-3, "Local Institutions of Virginia," by Edward Ingle (who has the correct view), p. 14.

were originally synonymous with Latin schools or grammar schools. It would be as absurd to identify the ancient and the modern meanings of free schools as to confuse a modern grammar school with the earlier or classical use of that term. When Sir William thanked God that there were no free schools in Virginia, we should not take the profane remark too seriously, for he had subscribed for the cause of classical education ten years before.

WHY FREE SCHOOLS AND THE COLLEGE WERE DELAYED.

It is not strange that little or nothing was really accomplished at this time for the cause of higher education in Virginia beyond the taking of subscriptions throughout the counties and parishes. Virginia was a new country, extraordinarily attractive from an agricultural point of view. Her settlers, instead of gathering in towns and villages, as the settlers of New England were by law required to do, dispersed more and more, imitating the English model of rural society already established by representative Virginians. It might well be expected that it would take a much longer time to develop an educational system in colonial Virginia than in Massachusetts or Connecticut, which were both made up of compact village republics. It took the University of Michigan nearly fifty years to get fairly under way, even with the aid of a national land grant, good territorial legislation, and the progressive spirit of the great West and of the nineteenth century. The Virginians were well enough disposed toward schools and colleges, but circumstances, such as physical geography and political economy, were against them. In rural districts subscriptions are always taken leisurely and collections even more so. Virginia was no exception to the rule.¹ Some writers would have us believe that the college was actually planted as early as 1661, but this is highly improbable. Early educational enactments in Virginia were like many of those early towns—on paper only. And yet the Virginians really meant to have both towns and a college. In 1688-'89, twenty-five hundred pounds were subscribed by a few wealthy gentlemen in the colony and by their merchant friends in England toward the endowment of the higher education.

ROYAL ENDOWMENT BY WILLIAM AND MARY.

In 1691 the colonial Assembly sent the Rev. James Blair, the commissary or representative of the Bishop of London, back to England to secure a charter for the proposed college. Virginia's agent went straight to Queen Mary and explained the educational ambition of her colony in America. The Queen favored the idea of a college, and William

¹ See "A bill for facilitating ye payment of ye Donations to the College of William and Mary in Virginia," 1698, *Calendar of Virginia State Papers*, i, 61. Beverly, whose *History of Virginia* was first published in 1705, says: "The subscribed money did not come in with the same readiness with which it had been underwritten."

wisely concurred. The royal pair agreed to allow two thousand pounds out of the quit-rents of Virginia toward building the college. Mr. Blair then went to Seymour, the attorney-general, with the royal command to issue a charter. Seymour demurred. The country was then engaged in war, and could ill afford to plant a college in Virginia. But Mr. Blair urged that the institution was to prepare young men to become ministers of the Gospel. Virginians, he said, had souls to be saved as well as their English countrymen. "Souls!" said Seymour, "Damn your souls! Make tobacco!"¹

John Bull is often brutally frank in the expression of his colonial policy, but quite as often, while swearing and grumbling, he opens his purse. The English Government concluded to give not only £2,000 in money, but also 20,000 acres of land, with a tax of one penny on every pound of tobacco exported from Maryland and Virginia, together with all fees and profits arising from the office of surveyor-general, which were to be controlled by the president and faculty of the college. They were authorized to appoint special surveyors for the counties whenever the governor and his council thought it necessary. These privileges, granted by charter in 1693, were of great significance in the economic history of Virginia. They brought the entire land system of the colony into the hands of a collegiate land office. Even after the Revolution, one-sixth of the fees to all public surveyors continued to be paid into the college treasury down to the year 1819, when this custom was abolished.² In no way could the College of William and Mary have better grasped the political economy of Virginia than by taxing its tobacco and surveying its land. This union of the college with the practical interests of the colony developed the wisest statesman this country has ever seen—George Washington, who received his first public commission as county surveyor at the hands of the president of William and Mary.

COLONIAL ENDOWMENT.

Specific acts by the Virginia House of Burgesses strengthened the royal endowment of William and Mary. In 1693 an export duty on all skins and furs was permanently levied for the support of the college.³ In 1718 one thousand pounds were appropriated by the Virginia House of Burgesses for the education of "ingenious scholars, natives of this colony."⁴ The special right of Maryland youth to be educated at William and Mary was early recognized.⁵ This was probably due to the fact that Maryland, like Virginia, was taxed one penny a pound on all exported tobacco, for the purpose of affording a permanent revenue to the college. In 1734 a tax was imposed upon all imported liquors "for

¹ *Works of Benjamin Franklin*, edited by Sparks, x, 111.

² *Hening's Statutes*, xi, 310; *Code of Virginia*, 1873, p. 710.

³ *Hening*, iii, 123.

⁴ *Ibid.*, iv, 74.

⁵ *Jones. Present State of Virginia*, 84.

the better support of the college—so as some part thereof shall be laid out and applied for buying such books for the use of the scholars and students in the college—and such books, so to be bought, shall be marked thus: *The gift of the General Assembly of Virginia, in the year 1734.*¹ This is perhaps one of the best dispositions of a liquor tax on record. In 1759 the college received the proceeds of a tax imposed on peddlers. Altogether the annual revenues of William and Mary before the outbreak of the American Revolution were estimated at about £2,300.

SCHOLARSHIPS.

Various scholarships, or “foundations,” yielding pecuniary support to students at William and Mary, were early established. The House of Burgesses founded three; Colonel Hill, of Shirley, and Robert Carter (King Carter), of Corotoman, together gave the sum of two hundred pounds for the endowment of a scholarship; Mrs. Thomas Bray, of New Kent, gave two hundred pounds; Mrs. Elizabeth Harrison, of Surrey, three hundred pounds; the Rev. James Blair, of Williamsburg, five hundred pounds; and Philip Lightfoot, of Sandy Point, the same sum. These scholarships were all founded before the American Revolution.²

BOYLE’S ENDOWMENT OF INDIAN EDUCATION.

The Hon. Robert Boyle, who died in England in 1691, by will enjoined his executors “to apply his personal estate to such charitable and pious uses as they, in their discretion, should think fit.” It was finally agreed, in 1697, that the revenue of the Boyle bequest, which had been invested in a landed estate called the “Brasserton,” should be annually paid over to the College of William and Mary, subject to an annual draft of ninety pounds, payable by the Virginia college to Harvard College. The intention of this endowment was the encouragement of Indian education and the propagation of the gospel among the natives. By means of the Boyle fund the College of William and Mary erected a building called the “Brasserton” upon the college green, and it long served as an Indian school.

An earnest attempt was made in Virginia to educate Indian boys. At one time, during Governor Spotswood’s régime, there were nearly twenty Indian students at William and Mary College. The governor remitted the tribute of peltry formerly exacted from certain tribes, on condition that they should send the children of the “chief men” to Williamsburg to be educated. Juvenile hostages were also taken from hostile tribes for the same purpose, which served also to promote the *salus publica*. In a letter to the Bishop of London, dated July 26, 1712, Spotswood speaks of the success of the experiment, but of the inadequacy of the Boyle endowment. The Indians, he says, “have a Master to teach them and are decently cloathed and maintained, so that they

¹ Hening, iv, 432.

² *The History of the College of William and Mary*, 65. Richmond, 1874.

seem very well pleased with the change of their condition, as indeed their parents and others of their Nations who come frequently to see them express much satisfaction with the care that is taken of them, and frequently lament their own misfortune in not having the like advantages in their Youth ; but as the revenue of the College settled by Mr. Boyle for that service is insufficient to support so great a charge, I hope your Lord'p will use your interest for obtaining some contributions from the Society for propagating the Gospell, and from other charitable persons to help the College to promote so good a design."¹

MOTIVES FOR FOUNDING THE COLLEGE.

The charter of the College of William and Mary shows that the objects of the foundation were much the same as those originally proposed in 1619, and again in 1660. The General Assembly of Virginia had asked for a royal endowment of the college, "to the end that the Church of Virginia may be furnished with a seminary of ministers of the gospel, and that the youth may be piously educated in good letters and manners, and that the Christian faith may be propagated amongst the Western Indians, to the glory of Almighty God."² This pious language would serve equally well in New England or Virginia to describe the highest motives of the founders of educational institutions. It is useless to arrogate any peculiar or particular piety in the educational establishments of any part of this country. The truth is that in old England, through many centuries, good men, ecclesiastics and laymen, sovereigns and subjects, had been laying educational foundations, such as monasteries, colleges, and free town schools, upon which ideas the New World has built. The motives of the English, whether in Virginia or New England, in providing for the pious education of their sons in good letters and good manners, were but colonial outcroppings of the same public spirit which founded the various colleges which now make up the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The propagation of the Christian faith among the Indians was perhaps a secondary consideration, but it was honestly attempted in Virginia as well as in Massachusetts.

Englishmen are much the same the world over, whether in America or Australia. They are a healthy union of public spirit and private interest, of measured philanthropy and enlightened selfishness. An

¹ Letters of Governor Spotswood, i, 174. On early attempts to educate Indian boys in Virginia, see Bishop Perry's *History of the American Episcopal Church*, i, 116, 123, 124, 128. An Indian school was established at Christanna, in Southampton County, where at one time (1716) seventy Indian children were taught.

² An "Alt Heidelberg" friend of the writer, Dr. George Gary Bush, in his interesting and attractive history of *Harvard, the First American University*, published in 1886 by Cupples, Upham & Co., says, p. 64, of that institution, "The education of both 'the English and the Indian youth in knowledge and godliness' was, according to the charter of 1650, the object sought in the establishment of a college." For text of charter, see *Records of Massachusetts*, vol. iii, 195.

Englishman's struggle for the salvation of his own soul often ends in organized effort for the good of his community or of his country, and sometimes it takes the direction of foreign missions, in lands which he is striving to subdue. It is this curious blending of individual with social forces which has converted England and her colonies into vigorous powers for civilization.

ORGANIZATION AND GOVERNMENT.

The power to establish and to organize "a certain place of universal study, or perpetual college, for Divinity, Philosophy, Languages, and other good Arts and Sciences, consisting of one President, six masters or professors, and an hundred scholars, more or less, graduates and non-graduates," was intrusted by the charter, issued February 19, 1693, to a self-perpetuating board of eighteen trustees, resident in the colony. They were to have the appointing power, and were to form the board of governors or visitors. Every year they were to elect from their own number a rector for the college. Every seven years they were to choose some eminent and discreet person to be the chancellor. Naturally the Rev. James Blair was by the charter made one of the original trustees, also the first annual rector and president of the college for life. He was a vigorous, aggressive Scotchman, and held his presidential office for fifty years, dying in 1743. The charter appointed the Bishop of London to be the first chancellor. The trustees continued, down to the time of the American Revolution, to associate the academic with the ecclesiastical office. Inasmuch as the first president, the Rev. Dr. Blair, was the Bishop's commissary, or deputy, in Virginia, it was but natural that these two offices should remain united down to the time of the Revolution. Thus the presidency¹ of the college and the primacy of the church in Virginia were represented by one and the same man. The charter

¹ *List of Presidents.*

Rev. James Blair, D. D., commissary	1693 to 1743
Rev. William Dawson, commissary	1743 to 1752
Rev. William Stith, D. D., commissary	1752 to 1755
Rev. Thomas Dawson, D. D., commissary	1755 to 1761
Rev. William Yates	1761 to 1764
Rev. James Horrocks, D. D., commissary	1764 to 1771
Rev. John Camm, D. D., commissary	1771 to 1777
Rt. Rev. James Madison (the first Bishop of Virginia)	1777 to 1812
Rev. John Bracken	1812 to 1814
John Augustine Smith, M. D	1814 to 1826
Rev. William H. Wilmer, D. D.	1826 to 1827
Rev. Adam P. Empie, D. D.	1827 to 1836
Thomas R. Dew	1836 to 1846
Robert Saunders	1847 to 1848
Benjamin S. Ewell, LL. D.	1848 to 1849
Rt. Rev. John Johns	1849 to 1854
Benjamin S. Ewell, LL. D. (a graduate of West Point)	1854 to —

provided that the president and professors of the college should constitute a body corporate, and that to it ultimately the trustees should transfer their entire endowment as soon as the institution should be fairly established. This was actually done; so that, in after time, the trustees remained simply as the board of annual visitors, with general superintendence and the appointing power.

THE FACULTY OF INSTRUCTION.

The charter provided for a college president and for six masters or professors. The text of the act transferring the college from the trustees to the faculty shows that the latter consisted, in 1729, of President Blair, two professors in the school of theology, namely, Bartholomew Yates and Francis Fontaine,¹ and two in the school of philosophy, to wit, Alexander Irwin, and William Dawson "late of Queen College, in Oxford." Three of these professors were so-called "clerks," who had been officiating in the parish churches of Virginia. Joshua Fry, a gentleman of Williamsburg, was appointed master of the grammar school, which was early established "for the immediate education of the youth of the colony in the Latin and Greek tongues." Thus were laid anew in America the old classical foundations of a liberal education. The grammar or Latin school was the corner-stone of the college proper, which was a philosophical department. The institution of a school of theology reminds us that the foundation laid by William and Mary needed only a school of law and a school of medicine to have become at the very outset a complete university, which, historically speaking, comprises four faculties.

"In addition," says Campbell, "to the five professorships of Greek and Latin, the mathematics, moral philosophy, and two of divinity, provided for by the charter, a sixth, called the Brasserton, from the estate in England which secured the endowment, had been annexed by the celebrated Robert Boyle, for the instruction and conversion of the Indians."²

Mr. R. A. Brock, corresponding secretary of the Virginia Historical Society, in his notes to the Dinwiddie Papers,³ says: "The succession of the masters or professors at this early seat of learning would be a highly interesting addition to the annals of American education. Through the repeated destruction of the college buildings and records by fire no such complete list is known to be extant. * * * The following list of the faculty to 1752, inclusive, has been preserved: Rev. Francis Fontaine (born 1697, died 1749), professor of Oriental languages, 1729; Rev. Bartholomew Yates, professor of divinity, 1729; Joshua Fry, 1729, master of the grammar schools (afterward advanced to the chair of mathematics); Rev. William Stith, 1731; Edward Ford, 1738; John Græme, 1741; Rev. Thomas Dawson, 1738; William Pres-

¹ Concerning "the first professor," see Spotswood's *Letters*, ii, 167.

² Campbell. *History of Virginia*, 347.

³ *Dinwiddie Papers*, vol. i, pp. 3-4.

ton, 1752; Rev. John Camm, 1752,—professors, whose departments of instruction are not known; Rev. William Robinson, master of the grammar school, 1742; masters of the Indian school: John Fox, 1729; Rev. Robert Barrett, 1737.”

The writer has no means of determining the exact nature of the early courses of instruction provided by the College of William and Mary. In all probability they were much the same as those given during the scholastic régime of early Harvard, which the writer has elsewhere described.¹ The Harvard system was but a colonial reproduction of the higher education of England as fostered at Oxford and Cambridge during the seventeenth century. The professors of philosophy at the College of William and Mary probably taught logic, rhetoric, ethics, physics, and politics, together with arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy; possibly also the Westminster catechism and a little history, sacred and profane. *Historia civilis* and *Historia naturalis* certainly belonged to the old scholastic curriculum. The study of American history was cultivated in an intelligent and original way by the Rev. Dr. William Stith, the historian of Virginia, professor in the college in 1731, and who was commissary of the Bishop of London and president of the college from 1752 to 1755. His work was first published at Williamsburg in 1747, where the historian prosecuted his researches in government offices respecting the beginnings of Virginia. He was the second academic representative of Virginia history. Prof. Hugh Jones, of whom we shall presently speak, was the first.

In 1734, the president, masters, scholars, and students of the College of William and Mary, and all the domestic servants belonging to the institution, were forever exempted from taxation, not only from tithes, but from all public, county, and parish levies.² This immunity is an interesting survival of the monastic system of the Old World.

The continuity of monastic tradition is further seen in the law forbidding professors to marry. In 1769, when a reverend professor of theology and the reverend master of the grammar school took to themselves wives and settled in the city of Williamsburg, it was resolved by the board of visitors: “That it is the opinion of this visitation that the professors and masters, their engaging in marriage and the concerns of a private family, and shifting their residence to any place without the college, is contrary to the principles on which the college was founded and their duty as professors.”

The salary of President Blair was originally fixed at £150 a year, but it was afterward cut down to £100. The salary of the masters, or fellows, as we learn from the statements of one of the earliest of them, was £80 per annum, with 20 shillings for an entrance fee and 20 shillings for tuition from each student intrusted to their charge.

¹ “History at Harvard University,” published in *Education*, May, 1886.

² Hening, iv, 433.

PROFESSOR HUGH JONES.

Probably one of the very best types of the early professor in the College of William and Mary is the Rev. Hugh Jones, already mentioned. He was an Englishman of university training, who came first to Maryland in 1696, and became the incumbent of Christ Church parish, in Calvert County. He sent home an account of the province of Maryland, which was published in the Transactions of the Royal Society. Upon the recommendation of the Bishop of London he was appointed to the chair of mathematics in the college at Williamsburg. While resident there he served as chaplain of the General Assembly, and as "lecturer" in the Bruton parish church; he preached also in Jamestown, the Canterbury of Virginia. He left the province for England in 1722, and in 1724 brought out in London his book on "The Present State of Virginia," which includes sketches of Maryland and North Carolina. Thus, through the faithful work of one scholarly churchman and college professor, the characteristics of three southern colonies passed into historical science. If this man did not teach history, he made it and wrote it. His monograph is acknowledged to be one of the best sources of information respecting Virginia in the early part of the eighteenth century.

Professor Jones was not altogether satisfied with the existing system of education at the College of William and Mary. In his book he suggests certain modifications, which are very remarkable for this early period. He proposed that one of the six professorships be devoted to the subject of *history*; but what is more surprising, he actually proposed that the college should be recognized as the *training school for the civil service of the colony*. The following are the professor's own words:

"The Charter mentions six masters or professors, but does not specify the professions; it directs to the making of statutes and founding scholarships, but the particulars are left to the discretion of the managers; and some such establishment as this here mentioned may not be improper, *especially if for greater encouragement the surveyors of each county were to be appointed by the president and masters, out of such as have taken a Bachelor of Arts degree there; and if the Governor and Council were to elect a certain number of Bachelors for clerks into the Secretaries office; out of which clerks attending and writing there at certain times, the county clerks should be appointed.*

"The office of the president would be to govern the College, be treasurer and censor, and have a casting vote in all debates. The six professors would be: One for Divinity, who should be chaplain and catechist; one for Mathematicks, one for Philosophy, one for Languages, one for History, one for Humanity, who should be Grammar Master."

This was the educational ideal of one of the best professors in the College of William and Mary at a very early period of its history. The scheme is remarkably well-rounded for those times. An earlier recommendation for a distinct chair of history and for a school of administration, it would be difficult to find in this country.

Returning to America after long absence in England, the Rev. Hugh Jones resumed parochial work in Virginia, but he finally returned to Maryland, where he built up various parishes, notably William and Mary parish and Sassafras parish, in Cecil County. He persuaded the people to build brick churches instead of cheap wooden structures, and he invigorated society wherever he went. He continued pastoral work until he was ninety years old, when he retired, "having worthily won the title of venerable." This professor and ecclesiastic might be called the Venerable Bede of Maryland and Virginia. He died in 1760, at the age of ninety-one, having been in the ministry sixty-five years.¹

ORIGIN OF WILLIAMSBURG.

The College of William and Mary, like Harvard College, was a state institution. It was founded by what was then the National Government, by royal endowment. The charter gave the General Assembly of Virginia the right to determine the best site for the college. It was voted to erect the buildings "as neere the church now standing in Middle Plantation old fields as convenience will permitt." Thus in Virginia, as in Europe, the church was the original centre around which educational institutions were planted. There was no town in "Middle Plantation old fields" at the time the college was built. Simply a church in Bruton Parish² and a scattered settlement, with an archaic system of common lands; these were the beginnings of what was yet to become a college town and the capital of Virginia.

It is a most interesting and remarkable fact that the founding of the College of William and Mary at Middle Plantation determined the political centre of Virginia and the founding of Williamsburg. The supposed healthfulness of the locality had indeed great weight with the Assembly in fixing upon Middle Plantation as a site for both college and capital; for the place "hath been found, by constant experience, to be healthy and agreeable to the constitutions of the inhabitants";³ but in the preamble to the act passed in the fourth year of the reign of Queen Anne, 1705, when Williamsburg was founded, this additional motive seems to have decided the location of the city: "It will prove highly advantageous and beneficial to his Majesty's Royal College of William and Mary to have the conveniences of a Town near the same."⁴

¹ Information concerning this remarkable man was obtained from Spotswood's *Letters*, i, 103; ii, 253; and from Bishop Perry's monumental work on the *History of the American Episcopal Church*, i, 307.

² The Vestry-book of Bruton Parish dates from 1674; but Bishop Meade (i, 146) says that there was a church at Middle Plantation as early as 1665.

³ Hening, iii, 419. With regard to the removal of the seat of government from Jamestown to Williamsburg, Hugh Jones says, in his *Present State of Virginia* (1724): "When the State House and Prison were burned down, Governor Nicholson removed the residence of the Governor with the meeting of General Courts and General Assemblies to Middle Plantation, seven miles from James Town, in a healthier and more convenient Place, and freer from the Annoyance of muskettoes"—Sabin's reprint, p. 25.

⁴ Hening, iii, 422.



Page 22.]

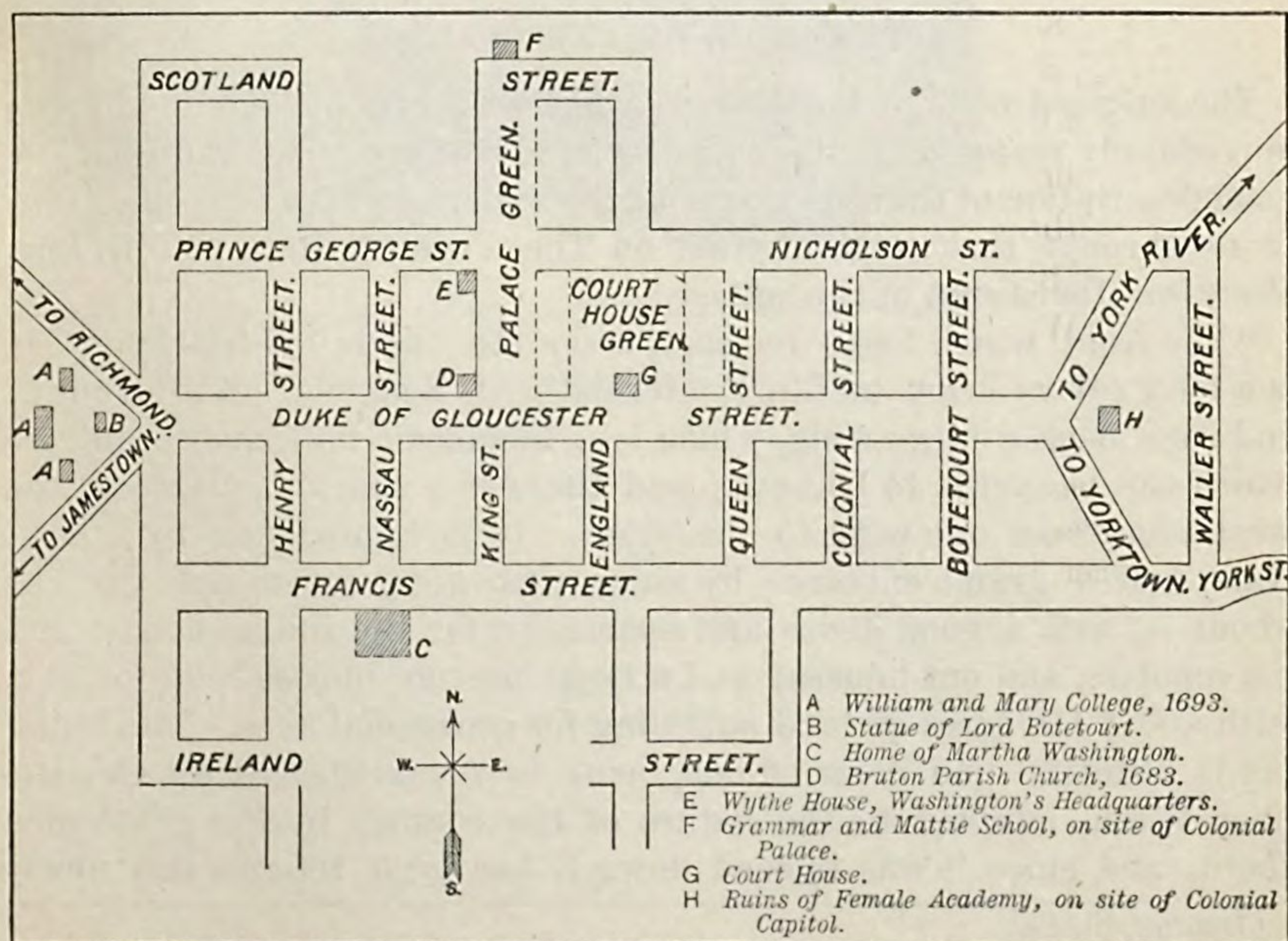
THE BRUTON PARISH CHURCH.

Published by courtesy of the Century Company.

Clearly these early legislators of Virginia were in advance of their age. They believed what the nineteenth century is just beginning to find out—that a good municipal environment is favorable rather than injurious to the higher education; that the town is more suitable than the country for the growth of a college or a university. The early Virginians had no idea that professors and students should be turned out to pasture like superannuated horses and untrained colts, and expected to feed on grass like Nebuchadnezzar. It is a very bucolic view of the higher education to expect it to flourish in the open fields, apart from human society, away from great libraries, museums, schools, churches, and from all the helpful, quickening influences of municipal life. Civilization and culture are, historically speaking, the products of towns and cities. The idea of isolating students from the world is but the survival of the monastic system, which sought cloistered retreats within protecting walls. While society and education owe much to this system, it should be remembered that monasticism is a mediæval and not a modern idea. Indeed the monastery and the castle were but historic reversions to the more primitive idea of hill-forts and patriarchal burghs, from which ancient cities and classical civilization sprang.

PLAN OF WILLIAMSBURG.

Williamsburg was laid out in good old English fashion, with a spacious market-place or town-square (the Germanic type of the ancient



PLAN OF WILLIAMSBURG, VA., 1887.

forum or *agora*). A plot of land four hundred and seventy-five feet square was appropriated for a building suitable for the General Assembly

and for the courts. The building when completed was to be "called and known by the name of the Capitol,"¹ and it was resolved that "the space of two hundred feet of ground every way from the said Capitol shall not be built upon, planted, or occupied forever." Truly a noble reservation, worthy to become the forum of Virginia! Surviving types of the same idea may be seen in Capitol Square at Richmond, and in every court green around the court houses of the South and in every town common of New England. The main street of Williamsburg was called the Duke of Gloucester Street. It was the Pennsylvania Avenue of the period. It extended from the capitol to the utmost western limits of the city, where it "joins on ye Land belonging to ye Colledge."² This colonial boulevard, connecting the seat of government with the seat of learning, shows that politics and the higher education were interests closely associated in the minds and hearts of the Virginians, as indeed are Richmond and the University of Virginia to this day.

Of the appearance of the Duke of Gloucester Street in 1724, a brief description is given by Professor Hugh Jones: "Fronting the college at near its whole breadth is extended a noble street, mathematically straight (for the first design of the town's form is changed to a much better),³ just three-quarters of a mile in length, at the other end of which stands the Capitol, a noble, beautiful, and commodious pile as any of its kind, built at the cost of the late Queen, and by the direction of the Governor."

APPEARANCE OF THE COLLEGE.

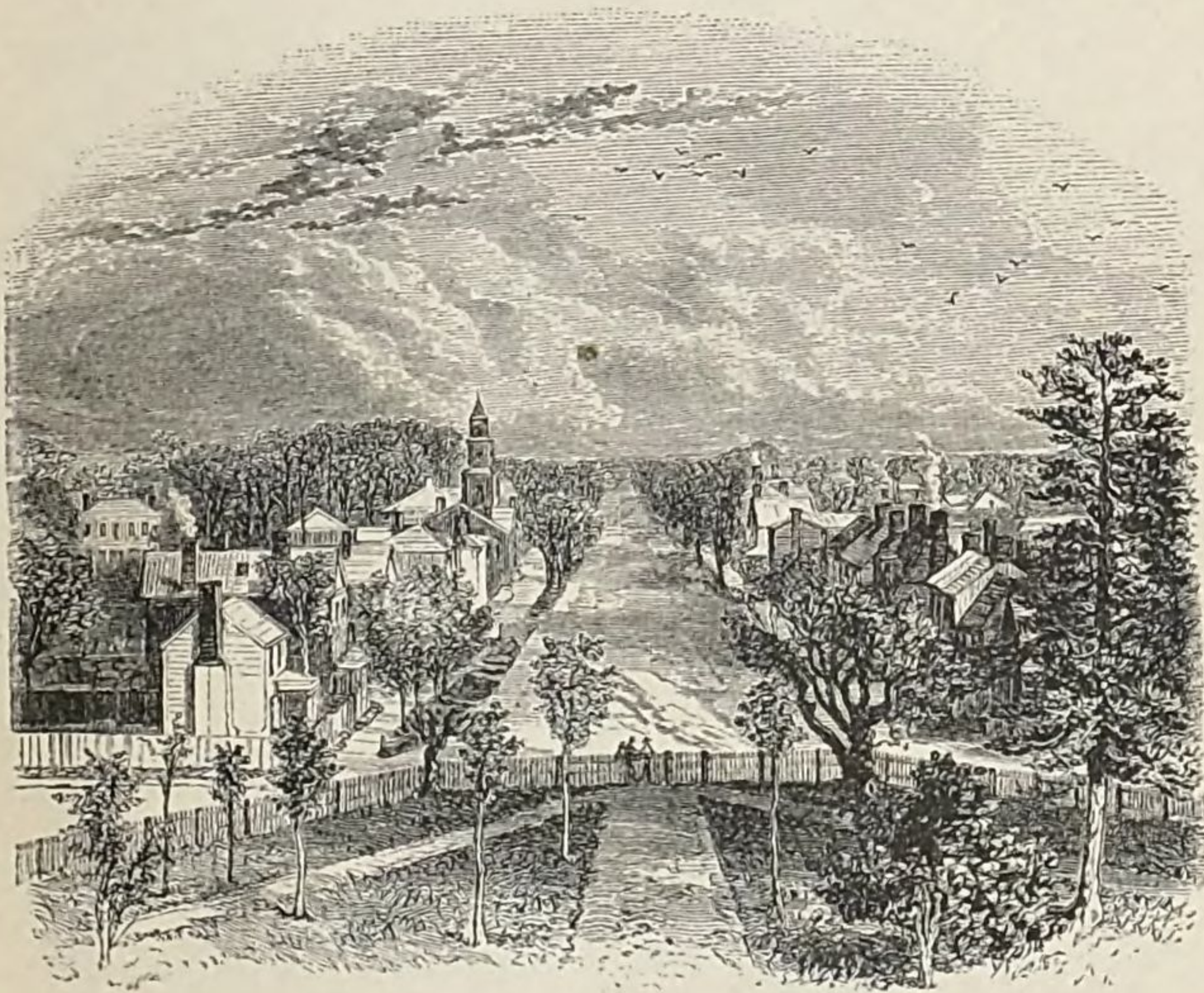
The original college building was burned down in 1705, but it was immediately restored in the same style, if we may trust tradition. A good description of the appearance of the college in 1724 has come down to us through that original tract on *The Present State of Virginia*. Professor Jones said of the college:

"The front, which looks due east, is double, and is 136 feet long. It is a lofty pile of brick building, adorned with a cupola. At the north end runs back a large wing, which is a handsome hall, answerable to which the chapel is to be built; and there is a spacious piazza on the west side, from one wing to the other. It is approached by a good walk, and a grand entrance by steps, with good courts and gardens about it, with a good house and apartment for the Indian master and his scholars, and out-houses; and a large pasture inclosed like a park, with about 150 acres of land adjoining for occasional uses. The building is beautiful and commodious, being first modelled by Sir Christopher Wren, adapted to the nature of the country by the gentlemen there; and since it was burned down it has been rebuilt, and nicely

¹ Henning, iii, 420.

² *Calendar of Virginia State Papers*, i, 109.

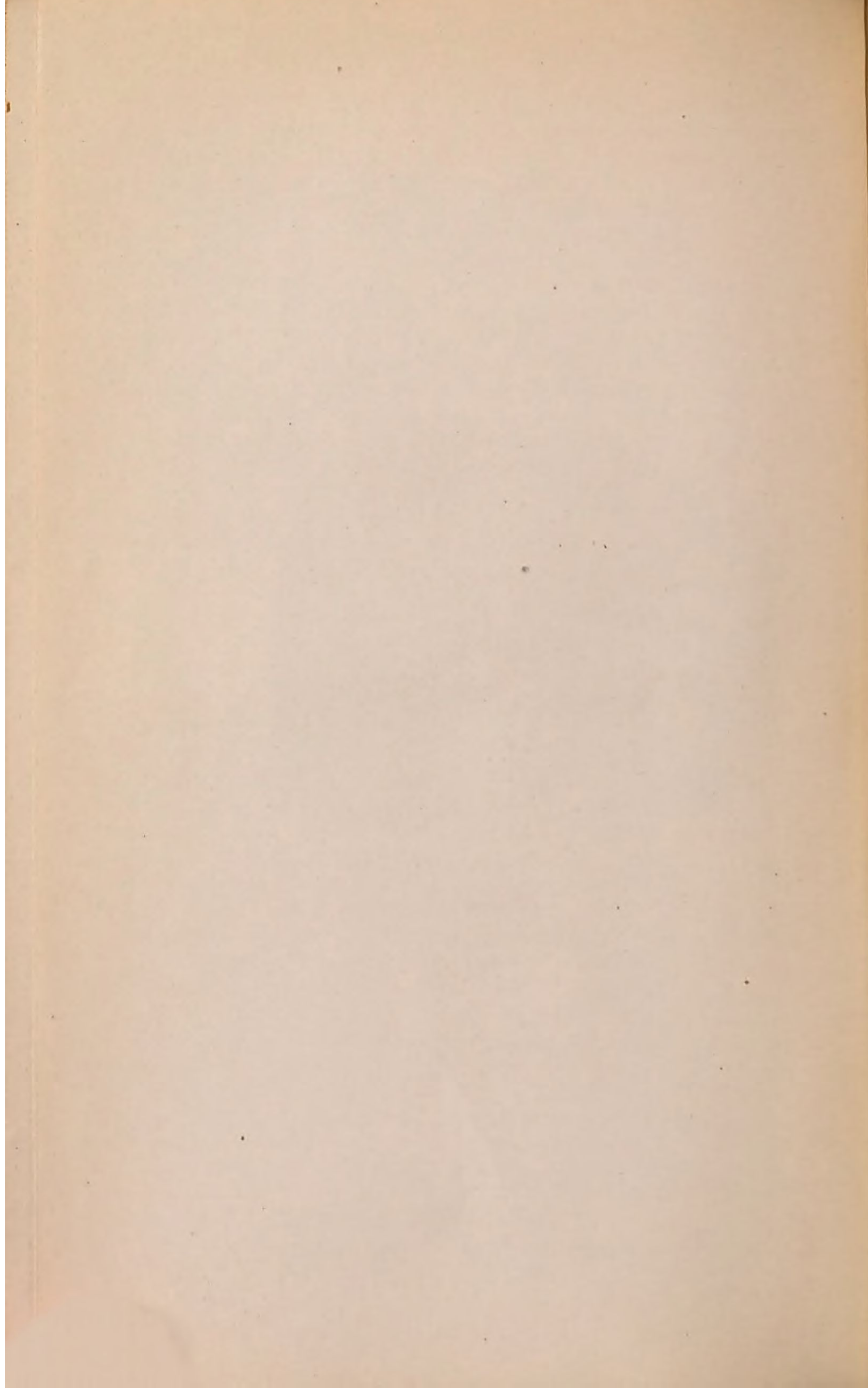
³ Governor Nicholson originally laid out the town of Williamsburg "in the form of a cypher [monogram?] made of W and M." Hugh Jones' *Present State of Virginia*, 25.

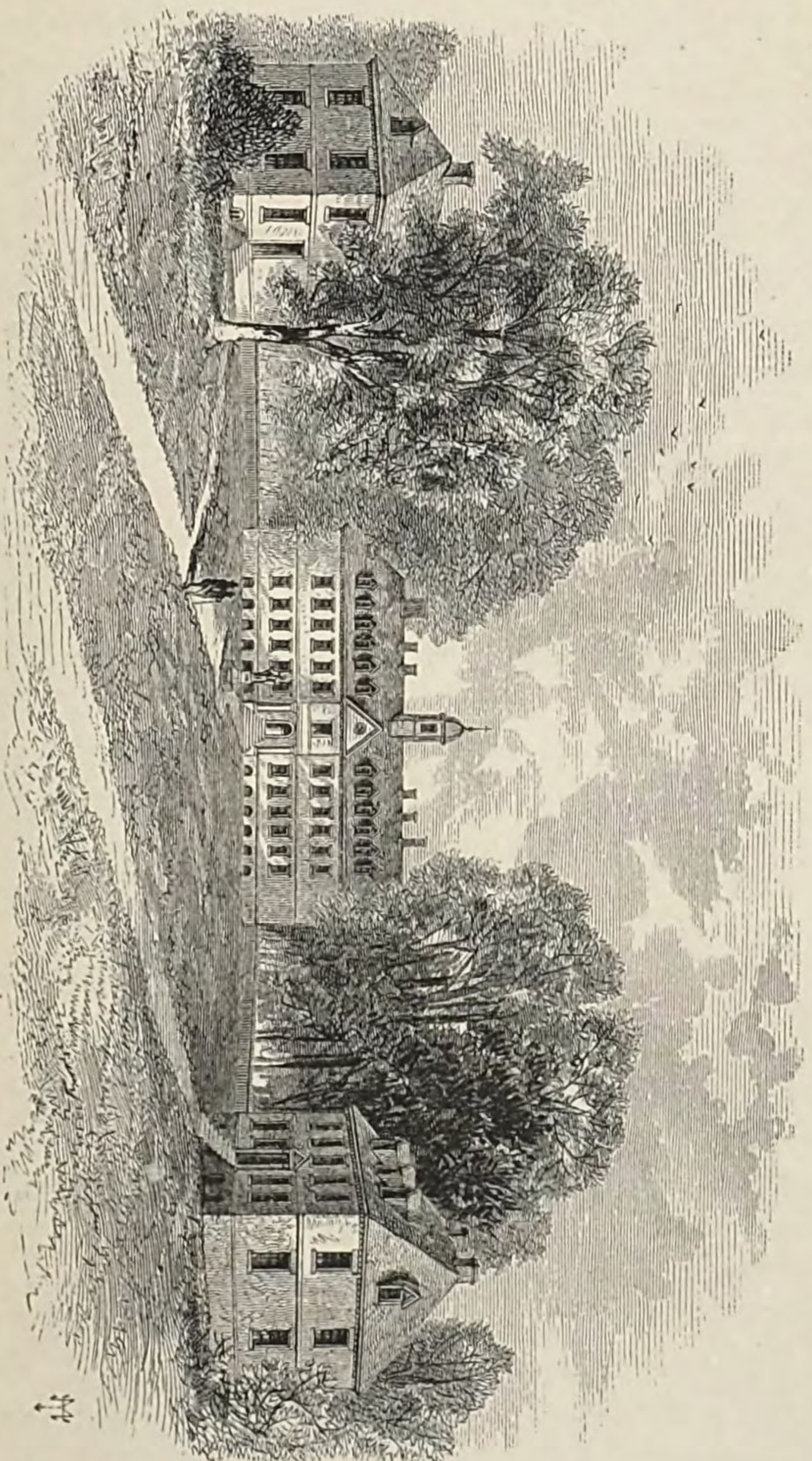


MAIN STREET, WILLIAMSBURG, FROM THE COLLEGE WINDOWS.

1— *Page 24.*]

Published by the courtesy of the Century Company.

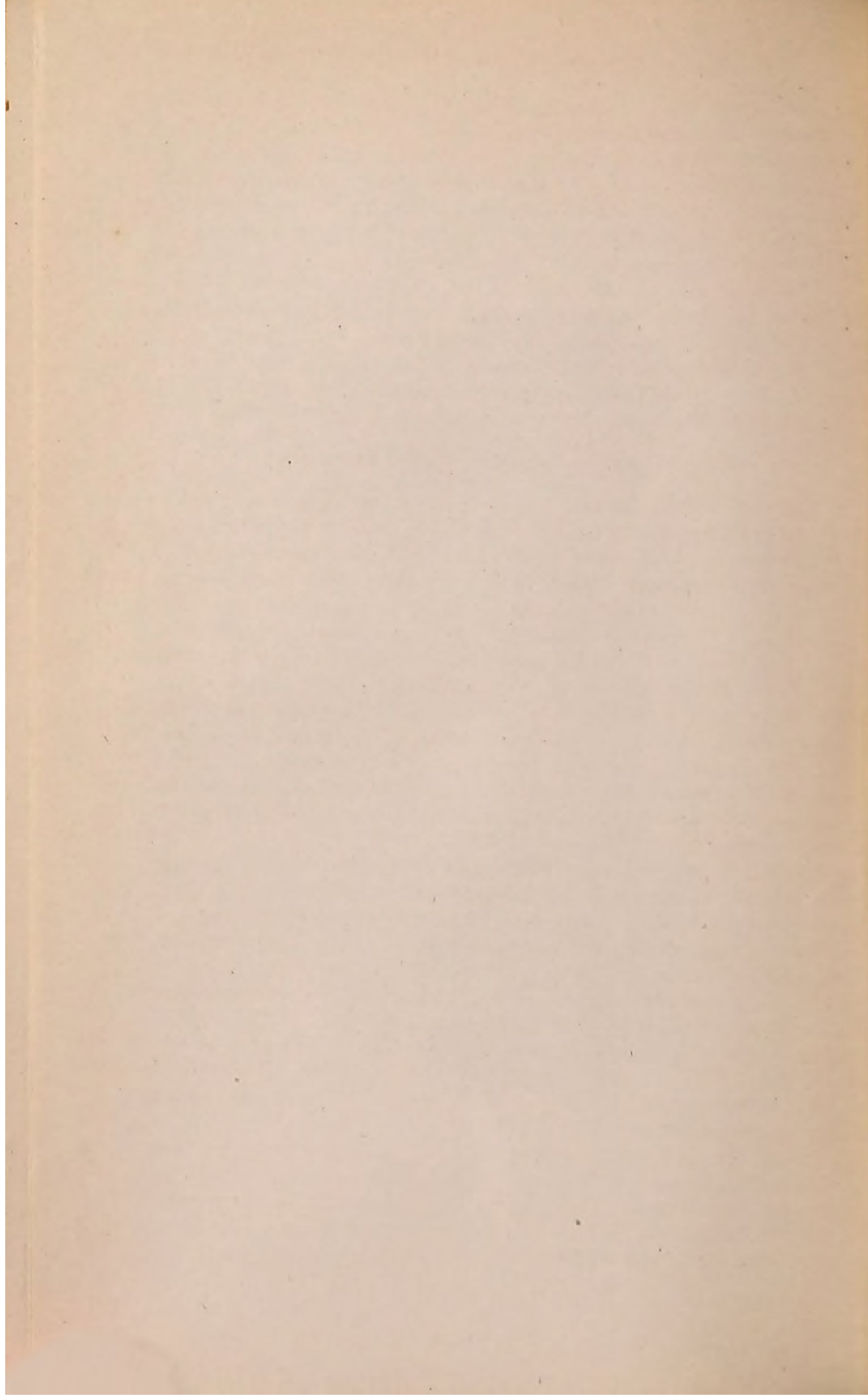




2—Page 24.]

WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE BEFORE THE FIRE OF 1859.

Published by the courtesy of the Century Company.



contrived, altered and adorned by the ingenious direction of Governor Spotswood, and is not altogether unlike Chelsea Hospital."

Professor Jones was evidently familiar with the sights and scenes of old England, as well as with the best society of the period. Like Chaucer, he had seen the world as in his time. The parson-professor was in favor at court, as appears from a letter of Governor Spotswood¹ to the Bishop of London in 1717. The man was an excellent observer of social Williamsburg. He says, in one naïve passage: "At the Capitol, at publick times, may be seen a great number of handsome, well-dress'd, compleat Gentlemen. And at the Governor's House upon Birth-Nights and at Balls and Assemblies, I have seen as fine an appearance, as good diversion, and as splendid entertainments in Governor Spotswood's time, as I have seen any where else."

A PICTURE OF THE TOWN AND CAPITOL.

A complete picture of the town, as it was in 1724, is given by this observing professor, to whom Virginia owes a great historical debt, for he describes the whole colony as faithfully as he did its college-capital. He describes the public buildings, and all the public offices, courts, etc. "In each wing of the Capitol," he says, "is a good stair case, one leading to the Council Chamber, where the Governor and Council sit in very great state, in imitation of the King and Council, or the Lord Chancellor and House of Lords. Over the portico is a large room where conferences are held, and prayers are read by the Chaplain to the General Assembly; which office I have had the honour for some years to perform." He describes the parish church, a brick structure in the form of a cross, "regular and convenient, and adorned as the best Churches in London. This from the Parish is called Bruton Church, where I had the favour of being lecturer."

Clearly this professor was a useful man in the community. Not far from the church there was the market place, "near which is a Play-House and good Bowling Green." From the church northward was Palace Street, at the end of which stood the Governor's house, "finished and beautified with gates, fine gardens, offices, walks, a fine canal, orchards, etc." The house had a cupola, "or Lanthorn," which was illuminated on festival nights, together with most of the town. "These buildings here described," he says, "are justly reputed the best in all the English America, and are exceeded by few of their kind in England." He mentions "a pleasant, long dry walk, broad, and almost level from the College to the Capitol."

"Williamsburg," he says, "is a market town, and is governed by a mayor and aldermen." It is a town "well stock'd with rich stores, of all sorts of goods, and well furnished with the best provisions and liquors. Here dwell several very good families, and more reside here in their own houses at publick times. They live in the same neat manner, dress after

¹ Spotswood's *Letters*, ii, 253.

the same modes, and behave themselves exactly as the Gentry in London; most families of any note having a coach, chariot, Berlin, or chaise. The town is laid out regularly in lots or square portions, sufficient each for a house and garden. Thus they dwell comfortably, genteelly, pleasantly, and plentifully in this delightful, healthful, and (I hope) thriving city of Williamsburgh."

TOWN AND COLLEGE.

The College of William and Mary and the town of Williamsburg grew and flourished together, the one aiding the other in a thousand ways. The college appreciated what the General Assembly called "the conveniences of a town," and the whole colony quickly learned to value educational privileges for its ambitious sons. "At the first Commencement of the College, in 1700," says Campbell, one of the historians of Virginia, "there was a great concourse of people; several planters came thither in coaches, and others in sloops from New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, it being a new thing in that part of America to hear graduates perform their exercises. The Indians had the curiosity, some of them, to visit Williamsburg upon that occasion; and the whole country rejoiced, as if they had some relish of learning."¹ A cultivated society gathered in Williamsburg, because it was the intellectual and political capital of Virginia. It became fashionable for the best families of the colony to spend the winter season "in town," just as social England to this day centres in London during the season. Bishop Meade, in his *Old Churches, Ministers, and Families of Virginia* (i, 194), says: "Williamsburg was once the miniature copy of the Court of St. James, somewhat aping the manners of that royal palace, while the old church and its graveyard, and the College chapel were, *si licet cum magnis componere parva*, the Westminster Abbey and the St. Paul's of London, where the great ones were interred." More truly than Jamestown the new capital became the historic as well as the political and social centre of Virginia. From this college-capital, where the plays of Shakespeare first found a public hearing in America, went forth Virginia's greatest sons.

A SCHOOL OF STATESMEN.

The gathering together of the best people of Virginia and the forming of student associations with all that was best in the history and politics of that colony and of Mother England were of untold influence in moulding the intellect, in testing the character, and in cultivating the manners of the rising generation. Whatever schoolmen may say, there is no school like the world of human society, like contact with men. A wise blending of scholastic and social culture makes all the difference between the mediæval monk and the modern man.

¹ Campbell. *History of Virginia*, 361, 362.

The mediæval monk shunned the world and the society of his fellow men, but the modern man has discovered virtue in both. It is greatly to the honor of the founders and builders of the College of William and Mary that they applied so early in the eighteenth century the idea of education in a social, municipal, and political environment. Williamsburg was the first exponent of a noble educational policy, to which this country will sooner or later return. It was a policy which struggled into existence in Prussia in 1810, when that child of conflict, the University of Berlin, was born in the capital of a kingdom that was to found an empire.

Wonder is often expressed that colonial Virginia, with her population widely dispersed, should have produced so many eminent public men, who became leaders in the American Revolution and who afterward gave such practical and sovereign direction to American politics. Virginia is called the mother of presidents, but the College of William and Mary, the alma mater of statesmen, is only another name for Virginia. The secret of that great family of patriot-politicians lies in the union of home education with the higher education, in the blending of private with public training, after the manner of our Mother England. In Virginia the historic process began with English traditions of family culture; it developed through the personal administration of rural estates, through vestry meetings and county courts and the House of Burgesses. The evolution of a higher class of politicians, of professional men and cultivated gentlemen, was first accomplished at Williamsburg, that school of citizens, churchmen, and statesmen. There were no educated lawyers in Virginia until the college began its preparatory work. Bishop Meade says: "The best ministers in Virginia were those educated at the college and sent over to England for ordination. The foreigners were the great scandal of the church."

Religious, political, and educational forces in society always thrive best by association, not necessarily by union. This was true of ancient society, and it is no less true in the modern state. While the separation of the school from the authority of the church and the separation of the church from the sphere of the state are among the greatest contributions of America to the world's advancement, nevertheless the association of these great forces must be preserved in a modified form. Neither the state nor the church nor the school can reach its highest efficiency when any one of these three institutions is cut off from association with the other two. A government without the support of religion and education, means ultimate lapse into moral and political anarchy. Ecclesiastical organizations, unrestrained by law and unenlightened by reason, may interfere with civil liberty and check the progress of thought. Schools, colleges, and universities, without public support and legal protection, without moral and religious associations, are hopelessly crippled in their usefulness to society.

In colonial Virginia there was an *entente cordiale* between the college, the church, and the state. The clergy held their conventions¹ in the college buildings, and, before the capitol was built, the House of Burgesses used to assemble in the academic halls. The head of the college was the head of the church in Virginia, and there was a representative² of the college in the House of Burgesses down to the Revolution. These facts merely illustrate the intimacy of educational, ecclesiastical, and political relations in that social microcosm at Williamsburg.

Never before or since in this country was there such a constant object lesson for students in the art of government and in the constitution of society. The College of William and Mary, almost from its original planting, was a unique seminary of history and politics—of history in the very making, of politics in the praxis. Without identifying the two subjects, we may accept the view of Gustav Droysen, Prussia's great historian, who says, "What is politics to-day becomes history to-morrow." The young Virginians did not study text-books of historical and political science. They observed the real things. The proceedings of their fathers at the capitol were to the sons analogous to those living processes of nature that are observed under the microscope in the modern biological laboratory. We might, however, better liken the position of the early Virginia students to that of the lesser clergy and inferior nobles, who came with the great barons of the realm to those itinerary Parliaments of England before the House of Commons was instituted. These young vassals and dependents looked on while their superiors took counsel with the royal Governor, the quasi king of Virginia. The day was to come when these budding knights and burgesses would themselves form a popular assembly, a new House of Commons called the Continental Congress, to shape the history and politics of a nation.

It is interesting to look over the catalogue of students at the College of William and Mary a few years before the outbreak of the American Revolution, and to notice what men this institution was training for service to state and country. There in 1759 was Thomas Jefferson, son of Peter Jefferson of Albemarle, author of the Declaration of Independence and of the statute of Virginia for religious freedom, and founder of the University of Virginia. By these three deeds he wished to be known to posterity. It would be glory enough for the College of William and Mary if she had educated him alone who is the father of American political thought and the first promoter of real university education. The roll of honor does not stop with Thomas Jefferson. There, too, appear Benjamin Harrison, Carter Braxton, Thomas Nelson, and George Wythe, all signers of the Declaration. There also are Peyton Randolph, first president of the Continental Congress, and John Tyler, first governor

¹ An extract from the faculty records, August 29, 1754, illustrates this point: "Resolved, unanimously, Y^t Mr. Commissary Dawson be allowed ye use of ye Hall and great room during ye meeting of ye clergy."

² Hening, iii, 241, 356.

of Virginia; Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General and Secretary of State; Beverly Randolph, governor of Virginia; John Mercer, governor of Maryland; James Innes, attorney-general of Virginia; James Monroe, President of the United States; John Blair, Judge of the Supreme Court of the United States; and John Marshall, the great Chief Justice.

For seventy years previous to the Revolution, there had been an annual average of about sixty students at the College of William and Mary. At the outbreak of the struggle for independence there were seventy students. Thirty-seven of them left college and joined the Continental army. Three professors also took arms for their country's cause. The institution, however, continued its educational work throughout the war until the memorable siege of Yorktown, when the college was temporarily closed for the accommodation of the American troops and their French allies. That school of churchmen, statesmen, and citizen-soldiers saw enacted before its doors the closing scene in one of the greatest dramas in modern history, when Washington and his Virginians, the Continental Army and the French allies, drew their investing lines around the forces of Cornwallis.

Upon the surrender of the British forces at Yorktown, October 19, 1781, the president and professors of William and Mary sent an address of congratulation to Washington. He replied on the 27th of October, in a letter addressed to the "President and Professors of the University of William and Mary," accepting their felicitations and rejoicing at the return of peaceful security to his fellow citizens. "The seat of literature at Williamsburg," he said, "has ever in my view been an object of veneration. As an institution important for its communication of useful learning, and conducive to the diffusion of the true principles of rational liberty, you may be assured that it shall receive every encouragement and benefaction in my power toward its re-establishment. The sick and wounded of the army, whom my necessities have compelled me to trouble you with, shall be removed as soon as circumstances will permit—an event which will be as pleasing to me as agreeable to you."

One hundred years after the surrender of Cornwallis, representatives of England, France, Germany, and the United States united at Yorktown for the commemoration of that international event in which all these nationalities had once participated. A monument was then dedicated. Not long after this celebration the national monument to Washington was completed in the Federal City. Quite recently the old alliance between America and France has been nobly symbolized by the erection of a colossal statue of Liberty Enlightening the World. But amid all these monumental works and historical commemorations, there has been no thought of that old college in the Yorktown peninsula, the college which trained the statesmen of the Revolution, and which gave Washington his first public commission and opened the way to his entire career.

A brief review of the relation of William and Mary to George Washington will throw new light upon this great public character, and explain the origin of his idea of a national university.

WASHINGTON MADE SURVEYOR BY WILLIAM AND MARY.

It is interesting to trace the evolution of men as well as of institutions. It is generally known that Washington began his public life as a county surveyor, but, in all probability, few persons have ever thought of his service in that office as the historical and economic germ of his political greatness. Most people regard this early work as a passing incident in his career and not as a determining cause. And yet it is possible to show that Washington's entire public life was but the natural outgrowth of that original appointment¹ given him in 1749 at the age of seventeen by the College of William and Mary. That appointment, in the colonial days of Virginia, was the equivalent of a degree in civil engineering, and it is interesting to observe what a peculiar bias it gave to Washington's life before and after the Revolution.

As we have seen already, the land system of Virginia was early placed under the control of the college authorities, who appointed all county surveyors and also the surveyor-general, who represented the economic interests of the institution and took certain fees for its support. From the lowest position as surveyor Washington rose to the very highest. It was his early practical career as a measurer of land that first made him favorably known to influential Virginians. There were but few men really competent for the work of a surveyor in colonial times. Washington's services were in great demand throughout the counties of Virginia. He not only surveyed private farms and plantations in settled districts, but also public lands and land grants on the western frontiers, among the Alleghanies, and along the upper branches of the Potomac.

It was Washington's excellent public service as a surveyor which led to his public commission as a militia officer in command of a military district for the defence of the Virginia frontiers against the encroachments of the French. It was his special knowledge of the back country and its people, acquired as a civil engineer, that led to his diplomatic commission from the seat of government in Williamsburg to the

¹ It would be interesting if one could find Washington's first commission as a public surveyor. In lack of it, the following later form, found in the *Calendar of Virginia State papers*, vol. iii, page 246, will illustrate the probable character of the appointment:

"We, the president and professors of the College of William and Mary, do certify his excellency, the governor, that we have examined Samuel Taylor and, having found him properly qualified, we do nominate him to the office of surveyor of the county of Cumberland.

"Given under our hands and the seal of the college, this 2d day of August, 1782.

"J. MADISON, *President*.

"J. McCLURG.

"ROBT. ANDREWS.

"CHS. BELLINI."

commandant of the French posts in the Ohio Valley. From this expedition of Washington, at the age of twenty-one, when he surveyed French forts and French schemes with all the skill with which he had formerly surveyed land, proceeded the entire train of English policy leading to war with the French for the possession of the territory lying back of the Alleghanies. This frontier war established the military reputation of Washington, and made him commander-in-chief of the Virginia forces. His frontier record in the French and Indian war was the stepping-stone which raised him at the outbreak of the American Revolution to the position of commander-in-chief of the continental army.

If the Revolutionary war had never occurred, George Washington would have been one of the foremost men of his time. His superiority would have appeared in great economic enterprises for the public good, enterprises growing out of that original office of county surveyor which actually led him by a development process to take the office of surveyor-general of Virginia and that of general-in-chief of the armies of the United States. Of course that humble agrarian office, conferred upon a young Virginian by the College of William and Mary, did not make its incumbent great, but it gave an opportunity for greatness to develop. Washington's genius was economic.¹ His mind grasped the practical questions of his time—the land question in the Ohio Valley, and its connection with the opening of a channel of trade between the Atlantic seaboard and the Ohio River. The conquest of that territory by the English, the search in that quarter for good bounty lands, the instincts of an explorer and of a civil engineer, made Washington appreciate more keenly perhaps than most of his countrymen the economic significance of the great West. Long before the Revolution, indeed, as early as 1754, he began to study the problem of connecting the tributaries of the upper Potomac with those of the Ohio, and of binding the East to the West by ties of economic interest.

WASHINGTON ACQUIRES 70,000 ACRES OF LAND.

The facts indicate that George Washington was one of the most enterprising men in America. In 1763 he wrote to William Crawford, a Virginia officer, whom he had taught the art of surveying and who had served his chief as a land-looker in the back country: "By this time it may be easy for you to discover that my plan is to secure a good deal of land." Exactly how much land Washington patented in the course of his life it is impossible to say, but at the time of his death he owned over 70,000 acres, principally in the Ohio Valley, Kentucky, the Northwest Territory, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New York along the Mohawk River, and in Virginia along the line of the Potomac and elsewhere. In the historical library at the Johns Hopkins University is a map of

¹ The economic side of Washington's character has been traced by the writer in the *Johns Hopkins University Studies*, vol. iii, pp. 55-91.

a survey, made in 1773, of 28,400 acres on the Little Kanawha, with explanatory notes in Washington's own handwriting. In the Maryland Journal and Baltimore Advertiser for August 20, 1773, is an advertisement by George Washington of "upwards of 20,000 acres of land on the Ohio and Great Kanawha," which the subscriber proposed to divide "into any sized tenements that may be desired and lease upon moderate terms."

In this very advertisement there is evidence of the great thought of connecting the East and the West, the Potomac and the Ohio Rivers, for the "convenience of the settlers in transporting the produce of their lands to market." This thought was interrupted by the outbreak of the national struggle for independence, but after the close of the Revolution Washington returned to it with more energy than ever. Indeed, before peace had been formally declared he left his camp at Newburg on the Hudson and made a three weeks' journey of exploration on horseback through central New York in company with Governor Clinton. These two enterprising men secured together 6,000 acres of choice land on the Mohwak River, and talked of buying up Saratoga Springs. On that tour of exploration Washington saw with his own eyes the possibilities of that great commercial route to the West now represented by the Erie Canal and the New York Central Railroad. Returning to Virginia he bent every energy toward the development of his old plan for the Potomac route. He wrote to Jefferson in 1784, "I am satisfied that not a moment ought to be lost in recommencing this business, as I know the Yorkers will delay no time to remove every obstacle in the way of the other communication, so soon as the posts of Oswego and Niagara are surrendered."¹ The Potomac Company, of which George Washington became the chief promoter and first presi-

¹ With regard to opening the Potomac route, in 1784 Washington wrote to Jefferson these historical details: "More than ten years ago I was struck with the importance of it; and, despairing of any aid from the public, I became a principal mover of a bill to empower a number of subscribers to undertake at their own expense, on conditions which were expressed, the extension of the navigation from tide water to Wills' Creek, about one hundred and fifty miles, and I devoutly wish that this may not be the only expedient by which it can be effected now. To get this business in motion, I was obliged even upon that ground to comprehend James River, in order to remove the jealousies which arose from the attempt to extend the navigation of the Potomac. The plan, however, was in a tolerably good train when I set out for Cambridge in 1775, and would have been in an excellent way, had it not been for the difficulties which were met with in the Maryland Assembly from the opposition which was given (according to report) by the Baltimore merchants, who were alarmed, and perhaps not without cause, at the consequence of water transportation to Georgetown of the produce which usually came to their market by land. The local interest of that place, joined to the short-sighted politics or contracted views of another part of that Assembly, gave Mr. Thomas Johnson, who was a warm promoter of the scheme on the north side of the Potomac, a great deal of trouble. In this situation I left matters when I took command of the army. The war immediately called men's attention to different objects, and all the money they could or would raise was applied to other purposes."

dent, evolved historically into the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal and the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.

George Washington chose a very good specialty when he applied to the College of William and Mary for an elective course in land surveying. That first appointment gave direction and purpose to his entire life. It made him a far-seeing national economist, a man of wide-reaching enterprise and of almost boundless public spirit, which developed into schemes for colonizing his lands with Germans from the Palatinate, and for opening a route to the West which should become "the channel of conveyance for the extensive and valuable trade of a rising empire." These remarkable words were written to Thomas Johnson of Maryland as early as 1770. They show that Washington was a man of large ideas in economics as well as in politics. He was, moreover, a man who grasped an infinity of practical details and shaped small things into great combinations. Such rare men make Napoleons in war and Alexander Hamiltons in peace.

CONNECTION WITH THE POTOMAC AND JAMES RIVER COMPANIES.

Washington's connection with these economic enterprises, growing out of his early surveys, was of the greatest importance to Virginia and the country at large in other than commercial ways. In 1785, upon the final organization of the Potomac and Virginia Companies, in testimony of the gratitude of his native State for his public services, fifty shares of State stock in the Potomac Company and one hundred shares in the James River Company were presented to Washington by the legislature through Patrick Henry, then governor of Virginia. The gift was most embarrassing to Washington. He never thought for a moment of accepting it; but how to decline it without giving offence—that was the question. He wrote to his friend Benjamin Harrison: "Not content with the bare consciousness of my having, in all this navigation business, acted with the clearest conviction of the political importance of the measure, I would wish that every individual who may hear that it was a favorite plan of mine may know also that I had no other motive for promoting it than the advantage of which I conceived it would be productive to the Union and to this State in particular, by cementing the eastern and western territory together, at the same time that it will give vigor and increase to our commerce, and be a convenience to our citizens. How would this matter be viewed, then, by the eye of the world, and what would be the opinion of it, when it comes to be related that George Washington has received twenty thousand dollars and five thousand pounds sterling of the public money as an interest therein?"

Through Patrick Henry Washington returned to the General Assembly his grateful acknowledgments, but firmly declined to accept the proffered bounty. He said that he had resolutely shut his hand against every pecuniary recompense during the revolutionary struggle, and that he could not change his position now. But, he said, if the legis-

lature would permit him to turn the destination of the proposed fund from his own private emolument to objects of a public nature, he would show his gratitude for the honor conferred upon him by the State by selecting objects which would meet the most enlightened and patriotic views of the Virginia Assembly. This proposition was accepted, and it was voted that the stock should stand appropriated to such public purposes as Washington might designate by deed during life or by his last will and testament.

RELATION OF WASHINGTON'S ENTERPRISE TO EDUCATION.

A proper disposition of this public stock was regarded by Washington as a sacred obligation, and caused him long and earnest thought. The shares were not likely to become immediately productive, so that there was ample time for deliberation. The evolution of his great purpose to employ at least a portion of his trust toward the endowment of a national university has never been traced, but an evolution there certainly was, and the old College of William and Mary played no unimportant part in the process. The germ of his purpose originated in a feeling of patriotic gratitude toward Virginia soldiers who had fallen in defence of their country. Washington, in 1785, proposed to Edmund Randolph and Thomas Jefferson the idea of employing the revenue from his Potomac and James River stock for the establishment of two charity schools, one on each river, for the education of poor children, particularly those whose parents had fallen in defence of American liberty. This was a noble purpose, and would probaoly have been carried out if the stock had become productive and *if Washington had not been chosen Chancellor of the College of William and Mary (1788) and President of the United States (1789).*

WASHINGTON THE CHANCELLOR OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

One year before Washington was chosen President of the United States, he was elected chancellor of the College of William and Mary by the board of visitors. This was an ancient and venerable office which had been held by the bishops of London continuously from the foundation of the college in 1693 down to the American Revolution. Washington was the first American elected to take up the historical succession to this old English ecclesiastical headship of the college. It was pre-eminently an honorary position, for besides the chancellor there was always a practical executive called the president, or rector. The old statutes defined the chancellor's office as follows: "The Chancellor is to be the Mæcenas, or patron of the college, such a one as by his favor with the King and by his interest with all other persons in England, may be enabled to help on all the college affairs. His advice is to be taken, especially in all such arduous and momentous affairs as the college shall have to do in England. If the college has any petitions at any time to the King, let them be presented by their Chancellor. If

the college wants a new president, or professor, or master, let the college senate rely chiefly on his assistance, advice, and recommendation."

In his first letter, dated Mount Vernon, February 20, 1788, respecting this election to the chancellorship, Washington expressed himself as "duly honored and greatly affected with the receipt of the resolution of the visitors and governors of William and Mary College," but deferred his acceptance until the terms of the above statute were communicated to him, whereupon he wrote the following letter to Samuel Griffin, who had conveyed the information :

MOUNT VERNON, 30 April, 1788.

DEAR SIR: I am now to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 15th of April, in which you did me the favor to enclose an extract from the original statute, designating the duties of the office to which I had been appointed. Influenced by a heartfelt desire to promote the cause of science in general and the prosperity of the College of William and Mary in particular, I accept the office of chancellor in the same; and request you will be pleased to give official notice thereof to the learned body who have thought proper to honor me with the appointment. I confide fully in their strenuous endeavors for placing the system of education on such a basis as will render it the most beneficial to the State and the republic of letters, as well as to the more extensive interests of humanity and religion. In return they will do me the justice to believe that I shall not be tardy in giving my cheerful concurrence to such measures as may be best calculated for the attainment of those desirable and important objects. For the expressions of politeness and friendship blended with your communications, you are desired to receive my best acknowledgments.

I am, dear sir, your obedient and very humble servant,

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

SAMUEL GRIFFIN, Esq.,

Rector of the College of William and Mary.

This was the beginning of George Washington's official connection with the cause of liberal education in America. He was now the acknowledged head of the only college in Virginia, the college which had given him his first local office many years before. Washington's chancellorship of William and Mary antedated his presidency of the United States and continued until the day of his death. The institution which first recognized his merits enjoyed the honor of his last public service. Although the duties of the chancellorship were never burdensome, they were nevertheless sufficiently honorable and distinguished to turn Washington's attention, even while President of the United States, to the thought of representing for the entire country what he already represented for Virginia. He was the actual Mæcenas or patron of learning in his native State; what more natural than that he should advance from the local to the national in his ideas of education? This process had been characteristic of his development in relation to economics, war, and politics. It was in the same way that he came to the larger idea of his relation to science. In his mind, the College of William and Mary, which already in 1781 Washington had called a "university," was an historical stepping-stone from the idea of charity schools in Virginia to the higher thought of a national university in the Federal City. Men's minds always move along lines of individual experience

and of least resistance. There was absolutely no other experimental way by which Washington could have risen from his original purpose to his educational ideal save through his connection with the chancellorship of William and Mary. The duties of this office were indeed trifling as compared with Washington's larger political career, but the two lines of presidential activity ran parallel with one another, and the very subordination of the one office may have suggested to Washington, in the other, the possibility of utilizing for a great national purpose the idea of higher education which William and Mary represented to him and to all Virginians. Thomas Jefferson obtained his first idea of the University of Virginia from his alma mater at Williamsburg, and Washington undoubtedly drew his national thought of education from the same local source.

JEFFERSON'S RELATION TO WILLIAM AND MARY.

The father of Thomas Jefferson was a practical surveyor, who had been chosen with Joshua Fry, professor of mathematics at the College of William and Mary, to continue the boundary line between Virginia and North Carolina, a task begun by Colonel Byrd. The two men were also employed together in making the first map of Virginia. Thus through association with a Williamsburg professor the father of Thomas Jefferson became inclined to give his son a liberal education and to train him to the art of surveying. This art the youth acquired, and he afterward became surveyor of Albemarle County.

Jefferson's autobiography is the best source of information respecting his connection with the college. He says he went to William and Mary in the spring of 1760 and continued there two years. "It was my great good fortune, and what probably fixed the destinies of my life, that Dr. William Small of Scotland was then professor of mathematics, a man profound in most of the useful branches of science, with a happy talent of communication, correct and gentlemanly manners, and an enlarged and liberal mind. He, most happily for me, became soon attached to me, and made me his daily companion when not engaged in the school; and from his conversation I got my first views of the expansion of science, and of the system of things in which we are placed. Fortunately, the philosophical chair became vacant soon after my arrival at college, and he was appointed to fill it *per interim*; and he was the first who ever gave, in that college, regular lectures in ethics, rhetoric, and belles-lettres. He returned to Europe in 1762, having previously filled up the measure of his goodness to me, by procuring for me, from his most intimate friend, George Wythe, a reception as a student of law, under his direction, and introduced me to the acquaintance and familiar table of Governor Fauquier, the ablest man who had ever filled that office. With him, and at his table, Dr. Small and Mr. Wythe, his *amici omnium horarum*, and myself, formed a *partie quarrée*, and to the habitual conversations on these occasions I owed much in-

struction. Mr. Wythe continued to be my faithful and beloved mentor in youth, and my most affectionate friend through life. In 1767, he led me into the practice of the law at the bar of the general court, at which I continued until the Revolution shut up the courts of justice."

Was ever education more liberal for the son of a Virginia farmer? Here is a young man, at the age of seventeen, fresh from classical training by scholarly Presbyterian clergymen, brought under the formative influence of three men of the world, the best minds in Williamsburg: first, Doctor Small, the Scotch mathematician and philosopher; second, Mr. Wythe, the lawyer who trained John Marshall at William and Mary; and third, Governor Fauquier, the ablest politician of his time. Is it surprising that a natural genius like Jefferson should have reproduced the types represented by his three best teachers, and have become a mathematical philosopher, a scholarly lawyer, a politician, governor, statesman, and diplomatist?

Educational heredity is sometimes as clearly manifest as are family traits. The mathematical bent of Peter Jefferson, the surveyor, of Albemarle, became even more marked in the mind of his son Thomas, who rose, like George Washington, from the position of a county surveyor¹ to that of surveyor-general of Virginia, the agrarian representative of his alma mater. The old college left its stamp upon Jefferson, not merely as a qualified surveyor and economist, but also as a practical educator and a lover of youth.

JEFFERSON'S PLAN OF EDUCATION FOR VIRGINIA.

It is a fact not sufficiently or generally understood that the first form of Jefferson's university idea was that of transforming the College of William and Mary into a State university. In 1779 he reported to the General Assembly of Virginia three bills for the establishment of a general system of education in his native State. The first bill provided for two grades of instruction: (1) elementary schools, for the children of rich and poor alike; (2) colleges for a middle degree of instruction to students in easy circumstances. The second bill proposed a university; the third, a library.

This general plan,² of remarkable scope, deserves a more detailed examination, for it is the historical basis of all that Jefferson subsequently accomplished for the educational cause in Virginia. It is closely allied to his cherished scheme for local self-government in smaller units than the county. He proposed that every county should be subdivided into hundreds, wards, or townships, five or six miles square, and that in the

¹ The following extract from the faculty records, October 14, 1773, contains Jefferson's appointment as county surveyor: "Agreed, unanimously, that Mr. Thomas Jefferson be appointed surveyor of Albemarle, in the room of Mr. Nicholas Lewis, who has sent his letter of resignation, and that he be allowed to have a deputy."

² For Jefferson's plan of education for Virginia, see his autobiography and his letter to Dr. Priestley, January, 1800.

centre of each local division there should be a free English school, in which reading, writing, and arithmetic should be taught. This was the idea of common school education, free to all children in the ward or township, and supported by local taxation under State authority. This part of Jefferson's great plan was actually adopted by the General Assembly in 1796, although the execution of the law was left optional with the county courts, a mistake which Jefferson said defeated his project.

For the promotion of college education, Jefferson's bill provided that the whole State should be divided into ten or more districts, in each of which a college should be planted for teaching the classics, grammar, geography, surveying, and other useful subjects. The college, as Jefferson conceived it, was to be a classical academy or gymnasium, preparatory to the university. It was an expansion of the same idea as that of the colonial free school, which was free merely in the sense of teaching the liberal arts. This form of the free school should be historically distinguished from the free English or common school, proposed for elementary education. The college was to be the Latin school, with the addition of a few practical or modern studies. This part of Jefferson's plan, although not actually adopted in the form proposed, remained one of his favorite ideas, to which he returned again and again in later life.

The roof and crown of the entire educational system of Virginia was to be the old College of William and Mary, transformed into a new and higher seminary of learning, with all preparatory work relegated to the fitting schools. Jefferson distinctly states that his second bill "proposed to amend the constitution of William and Mary College, to enlarge its sphere of science, and to make it in fact a university." In his autobiography Jefferson explains why this, the best part of his plan, failed to succeed. "The College of William and Mary was an establishment purely of the Church of England; the visitors were required to be all of that church; the professors, to subscribe to the thirty-nine articles; its students, to learn the catechism; and one of its fundamental objects was declared to be to raise up ministers for that church. The religious jealousies, therefore, of all the dissenters took alarm lest this might give an ascendancy to the Anglican sect, and refused acting on that bill. Its local eccentricity, too, and unhealthy autumnal climate lessened the general inclination toward it." For these and other reasons the College of William and Mary failed to become the State university of Virginia.

JEFFERSON REMODELS THE CURRICULUM OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

Jefferson's interest in the cause which William and Mary originally represented to his mind was doubtless strengthened by the more successful part which he took in remodelling the scholastic curriculum of the college in the interest of modern studies, of which he was the first American champion. "On the 1st of June, 1779," he says in his auto-

biography, "I was appointed Governor of the Commonwealth and retired from the legislature. Being elected also one of the visitors of William and Mary College, a self-electing body, I effected, during my residence in Williamsburg that year, a change in the organization of that institution, by abolishing the grammar school and the two professorships of divinity and oriental languages, and substituting a professorship of law and police,¹ one of anatomy, medicine, and chemistry, and one of modern languages; and the charter confining us to six professorships, we added the law of nature and nations and the fine arts, to the duties of the moral professor, and natural history to those of the professor of mathematics and natural philosophy."² Thus Jefferson introduced the first distinctively modern currents into the curriculum of William and Mary.

JEFFERSON STUDIES EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES.

From early connection with educational reforms at Williamsburg, Jefferson's mind naturally turned more and more strongly toward universities. While upon foreign missions in the interest of the United States he made inquiries into the best systems of university education in the Old World. In 1785 we find him writing from Paris to J. Bannister, jr., respecting the relative merits of Swiss and Italian universities—Geneva, Rome, and Pisa. At this period he was inclined to prefer Rome, because of its historic associations and its remarkable opportunities for culture in the fine arts. A little later, in 1791, he wrote to Mr. McAlister, "With respect to the schools of Europe my mind is perfectly made up, and on full inquiry. The best in the world is Edinburgh. * * * On the continent of Europe, no place is comparable to Geneva." After his return to America he repeatedly spoke of these ancient seminaries of science as "the two eyes of Europe."

A curious evidence of Jefferson's continued loyalty to his alma mater may be discovered in the above letter to Mr. Bannister: "But why send an American youth to Europe for education? What are the objects of a useful American education? Classical knowledge, modern languages, chiefly French, Spanish, and Italian, mathematics, natural philosophy, natural history, civil history, and ethics. In natural philosophy I mean to include chemistry and agriculture, and in natural history to include botany, as well as the other branches of these departments. It is true

¹ This was much the same as the modern science of administration, which is just beginning anew to creep into our university courses in America. What the German would call *Polizeiwissenschaft*, and what the Greeks termed *πολιτεία*, was taught for nearly a century at the College of William and Mary under the head of "police." That name would probably suggest nothing but constabulary associations to most college faculties in these modern days. Another excellent term, also in danger of oblivion, long remained in current use at William and Mary, viz, "*humanity*," of which there was one professor.

² Compare with Jefferson's autobiography his *Notes on Virginia*, query xv, and his letter to J. C. Cabell, February 22, 1821.

that the habit of speaking the modern languages cannot be so well acquired in America; but every other article *can be as well acquired at William and Mary College as at any place in Europe.*" Jefferson is here speaking of undergraduate training. As to graduates, he admits that medical students ought to study abroad, but he is confident that law students can do quite as well by attending the law courses of Mr. Wythe at William and Mary. Jefferson was by no means provincial in this view. It should be remembered that some of the best lawyers and statesmen of the Revolution had been trained in Williamsburg, and that John Marshall,¹ the most distinguished Chief Justice of the United States, acquired a systematic knowledge of law from Professor Wythe during the intervals of revolutionary campaigning in Virginia, just as young Prussian officers at the present day attend university courses while stationed in Berlin.

INFLUENCE OF THE COLLEGE OF GENEVA UPON JEFFERSON.

One of the most remarkable results of Jefferson's sojourn in Europe and of his inquiries concerning the higher education was the proposition made to him in 1794 by Professor D'Ivernois, representing the Genevan faculty, "to translate the Academy of Geneva in a body to this country." The faculty of that institution had fallen into disfavor with the revolutionary party in their republic, and proposed to emigrate to Virginia, with a considerable body of Swiss farmers, provided they should receive the necessary encouragement. Jefferson had known D'Ivernois in Paris, and had very great respect for his character and attainments. In a letter to Washington, Jefferson speaks of D'Ivernois as a man of science and as author of a history of the republic of Geneva. He further describes the Genevan faculty: Mouchon, the President, famous for his work with the encyclopedists; Pictet, the natural philosopher, who had measured a degree with scientific accuracy; Bertrand and L'Huillier, the mathematicians, second only, in all Europe, to La Grange; De Saussure, the geologist, celebrated for his Alpine researches; Senebier, translator of the Greek tragedians; all together a faculty of ten or twelve professors. Jefferson said, "The names of Mouchon, Pictet, De Saussure, and Senebier are well known to me as standing foremost among the literati of Europe." He thinks the revolution in France will incline La Grange also, "who is without equal" as a mathematician, to join the Swiss professors in their proposed exodus. It was a scheme of dazzling brilliancy, and Jefferson was evidently much impressed with its possibilities, for he wrote to Washington a very elaborate account of the whole matter.

Jefferson had previously submitted the project of the Geneva professors to influential members of the General Assembly of Virginia for private discussion, but the scheme had been judged impracticable, be-

¹ Magruder. *Life of Marshall*, 23, in "American Statesmen Series."

cause of (1) the great expense; (2) the necessity which would arise of teaching American youth in the French or Latin languages; and (3) the very grandeur of the enterprise, which was out of all proportion to the population and needs of Virginia. Jefferson now appealed to Washington as a final resort, knowing that he had contemplated the gift of his stock in the Potomac and James River Companies toward the establishment of a national university. Jefferson urged that the State which had organized these companies and which paid the dividends ought to be chiefly favored in the disposition which Washington might make of his stock. He suggested that the Virginians would be satisfied if the university were placed within their borders, and that a happy compromise might be effected between the ideas of a national and a State institution, by planting it near the Federal City.

INFLUENCE OF THE GENEVA PROJECT UPON WASHINGTON.

Washington had already heard of the project of the Swiss professors from John Adams, to whom D'Ivernois had also written. To both Adams and Jefferson the President communicated his unfavorable opinion of the Swiss proposition. To Jefferson he gave a specific statement of his views to the effect that (1) the plan for a national university was not sufficiently matured to justify any encouragement to the Swiss professors; (2) the propriety of transplanting the entire body of them was questionable, for they might not all be good characters or sufficiently acquainted with the English language; (3) the Swiss professors had been at variance with the popular party at home, and their introduction to America might be considered an aristocratic movement; (4) such an invitation to the Swiss "might preclude some of the first professors in other countries from a participation" in the national university. Washington suggests that "some of the most celebrated characters in Scotland, in this line, might be obtained."

Thus in matters pertaining to the highest education, as already in economics, war, politics, and diplomacy, George Washington showed his sovereign common sense. From whatever point of view the character of the greatest of Virginians is seen, his wisdom and judgment impress the beholder. He was not disposed to subordinate the idea of an American university to the importation *en masse* of any foreign colony of professors, even though they constituted the best single faculty in continental Europe. He was inclined to take a thoroughly scientific and broadly international view of the educational question. If Scotland had a better professor of philosophy than the Genevan, he wanted the Scotchman.

While discouraging the idea of transplanting a foreign university to these American shores, Washington proceeded to take immediate steps toward the realization of his own long-cherished plan of founding a national university. Returning the Swiss papers to John Adams on the 27th of November, 1794, he said: "That a national university in this

country is a thing to be desired, has always been my decided opinion ; and the appropriation of ground and funds for it in the Federal City has long been contemplated and talked of." It is evident that a new impetus was now given to this old idea, born of William and Mary College. In less than three weeks after writing to Adams, Washington addressed a letter to Edmund Randolph, Secretary of State, requesting that he and James Madison should mature the proper course for him in disclosing his design to give his stock of fifty shares in the Potomac Company toward the endowment of a university in the District of Columbia. As previously explained, this stock, together with one hundred shares in the James River Company, had been given to Washington for his public services by the legislature of Virginia, and he now wished to have the approbation of that body with regard to his proposed disposition of the shares first named for a national university. On the 28th of January, 1795, Washington informed the commissioners of the Federal City that he had vested in perpetuity fifty shares of Potomac stock toward the above object. This was done *before* the receipt of Jefferson's letter, dated at Monticello, February 22, 1795, respecting D'Ivernois's proposition, which had already come to Washington's notice through John Adams at least three months earlier. The Swiss idea had its influence upon both of the great Virginians, but it stimulated Washington to immediate action. When he heard Jefferson's version of the Swiss scheme he wrote to him, "I have in a degree anticipated your proposition," in so far as it related to the application of stock in the Potomac Company to the endowment of a national university. Washington said he was inclined to apply the James River shares to the same purpose, but, "considering the source from whence they were derived, I have, in a letter I am writing to the executive of Virginia on this subject, left the application of them to a seminary within the State, to be located by the legislature." The very next day, March 16, 1795, Washington wrote to Robert Brooke, Governor of Virginia, proposing to vest his Potomac stock in a national university and his James River shares in a Virginia institution. His proposition was favorably received by the Governor and General Assembly.

Clearly the transition from the charity schools to the university idea was now complete. And yet it is interesting to note that Washington had been giving fifty pounds a year for the instruction of poor children in Alexandria, and he had not neglected to offer educational aid to the sons of soldiers. The idea of promoting State education survived in Washington's proposal to give his James River stock to "a seminary of learning upon an enlarged plan, but yet not coming up to the full idea of a university. * * * The students who wish to pursue the whole range of science may pass with advantage from the seminary to the university, and the former by a due relation may be rendered co-operative with the latter." Washington said that he would have preferred to concentrate all his resources upon a national university in the

Federal City; but, in deference to Virginia sentiment, to which he owed his very means of philanthropy, he gave a portion to Liberty Hall Academy, now Washington and Lee University.

WASHINGTON'S IDEA OF A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

The educational ideal of Washington was thoroughly American. He wrote to Governor Brooke of Virginia: "It is with indescribable regret that I have seen the youth of the United States migrating to foreign countries, in order to acquire the higher branches of erudition, and to obtain a knowledge of the sciences. Although it would be injustice to many to pronounce the certainty of their imbibing maxims not congenial with republicanism, it must nevertheless be admitted that a serious danger is encountered by sending abroad among other political systems those who have not well learned the value of their own. The time is therefore come when a plan of universal education ought to be adopted in the United States. Not only do the exigencies of public and private life demand it, but, if it should ever be apprehended that prejudice would be entertained in one part of the Union against another, an efficacious remedy will be to assemble the youth of every part under such circumstances as will, by the freedom of intercourse and collision of sentiment, give to their minds the direction of truth, philanthropy, and mutual conciliation."

The following passage, taken from Washington's last will and testament, best conveys his ideas upon the subject of a national university:

"It has always been a source of serious regret with me, to see the youth of these United States sent to foreign countries for the purpose of education, often before their minds were formed, or they had imbibed any adequate ideas of the happiness of their own; contracting too frequently, not only habits of dissipation and extravagance, but principles unfriendly to republican government, and to the true and genuine liberties of mankind, which thereafter are rarely overcome; for these reasons it has been my ardent wish to see a plan devised on a liberal scale, which would have a tendency to spread systematic ideas through all parts of this rising empire, thereby to do away local attachments and State prejudices, as far as the nature of things would, or indeed ought to admit, from our national councils. Looking anxiously forward to the accomplishment of so desirable an object as this is (in my estimation), my mind has not been able to contemplate any plan more likely to effect the measure, than the establishment of a UNIVERSITY in a central part of the United States, to which the youths of fortune and talents from all parts thereof may be sent for the completion of their education, in all the branches of polite literature, in arts and sciences, *in acquiring knowledge in the principles of politics and good government*, and, as a matter of infinite importance in my judgment, by associating with each other, and forming friendships in juvenile years, be enabled to free themselves in a proper degree from those local preju-

dices and habitual jealousies which have just been mentioned, and which, when carried to excess, are never-failing sources of disquietude to the public mind, and pregnant of mischievous consequences to this country. Under these impressions, so fully dilated,

“I give and bequeath, in perpetuity, the fifty shares which I hold in the Potomac Company (under the aforesaid acts of the Legislature of Virginia), towards the endowment of a university, to be established within the limits of the District of Columbia, under the auspices of the General Government, if that Government should incline to extend a fostering hand towards it; and, until such seminary is established, and the funds arising on these shares shall be required for its support, my further will and desire is, that the profit accruing therefrom shall, whenever the dividends are made, be laid out in purchasing stock in the Bank of Columbia, or some other bank, at the discretion of my executors, or by the Treasurer of the United States for the time being, under the direction of Congress, provided that honorable body should patronize the measure; and the dividends proceeding from the purchase of such stock are to be vested in more stock, and so on, until a sum adequate to the accomplishment of the object is obtained; of which I have not the smallest doubt before many years pass away, even if no aid or encouragement is given by the legislative authority, or from any other source.”

Washington's gift of stock in the James River Company to Liberty Hall in Virginia became productive. The State seminary which he designed to be preparatory to the national university has evolved into a flourishing institution of learning; but that “full idea” suggested by the chancellor of William and Mary was never realized in the form which he originally intended. Congress did not extend its fostering hand. The affairs of the Potomac Company were ultimately merged in the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company (see Pickell's History of the Potomac Company). Sparks, in his Life of Washington, page 416, says, “the shares appropriated by Washington's will are doubtless held in trust” by the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company, “for their destined object.” The actual fate of Washington's endowment of a national university would be a good subject for a congressional inquiry, when other scientific subjects are exhausted. It appears from a report of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company, in 1851, page 20, that only one dividend was ever paid upon the Potomac stock; but the above canal is there described “as merely carrying out in a more perfect form the design of General Washington, and as naturally resulting from the views and measures originally suggested by him.”

In this connection it is interesting to observe that, along the very route which Washington thought would become “the channel of the extensive and valuable trade of a rising empire,” was constructed, not only the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, but the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. It is still more interesting to reflect that a gift of stock in

this road formed the chief endowment of the Johns Hopkins University, which, if not national in name, is national in spirit, and is striving to realize Washington's "full idea of a university." Baltimore is not alone in representing the true university spirit, but from her geographical position, midway between North and South and hard by the nation's capital, she is approximating to Washington's ideal of an institution where young men from all parts of the Union "may be sent for the completion of their education * * * in arts and sciences, in acquiring knowledge in the principles of politics and good government, and * * * be enabled to free themselves in a proper degree from local prejudices and habitual jealousies."

American students are to-day moving upon the great current of national university life, such a current as would have rejoiced the mind and heart of George Washington, could he have foreseen the national representation of this country in our leading colleges and universities. We are enjoying the practical realization of a grand idea, but it is not unreasonable to inquire whether the present cosmopolitan spirit in American student life might not have begun to develop at a much earlier period if Congress had given some attention to Washington's earnest recommendations. Supposing a school of politics and good government, in connection with other liberal arts and sciences, had been planted in the city of Washington, under the auspices of the United States, at the very beginning of the present century, before the sectional issue had become paramount in American politics, would there not have been some chance for the development of a school of well-trained, public-spirited men, of broad-minded statesmen, competent to settle economic and constitutional questions, without leading the country into fratricidal war, costing millions of men and untold treasure? The simple experiment would at least have been inexpensive compared with that actually essayed. England and Germany were able to rid their dominions of slavery and serfdom by legislative means, and possibly the United States might have done the same thing by the education of a school of really patriotic politicians, who could have risen above sectional issues, or those "local attachments and State prejudices" which Washington feared, and who could have developed the healthful Virginia sentiment of Jefferson and of the eighteenth century into an irresistible national opinion.

Washington early attempted to impress upon Congress "how much *a flourishing state of the arts and sciences contributes to national prosperity and reputation.*" He foreshadowed the scientific policy of the nation when he pointed out its duty in these matters. He intimated that the higher education could never reach its highest estate without national aid. "True it is," he observed, "that our country, much to its honor, contains many seminaries of learning highly respectable and useful; but the funds upon which they rest are too narrow to command the ablest professors, in the different departments of liberal knowledge, for

the institution contemplated, though they would be excellent auxiliaries."

The father of his country wished to save the United States on the one hand from provincialism, and on the other from sectionalism. Undoubtedly, in his mind, the national idea was uppermost: "Amongst the motives to such an institution," he said, "the assimilation of the principles, opinions, and manners of our countrymen, by the common education of a portion of our youth from every quarter, well deserves attention. The more homogeneous our citizens can be made in these particulars, the greater will be our prospect of permanent union; *and a primary object of such a national institution should be the education of our youth in the science of government.* In a republic, what species of knowledge can be equally important, and what duty more pressing on its legislature, than to patronize a plan for communicating it to those who are to be the future guardians of the liberties of the country?"

WASHINGTON'S UNIVERSITY IDEA COMPARED WITH JEFFERSON'S.

In his appeal to Washington that he should employ his stock in the Virginia navigation companies for the transfer of the Swiss college to America, Jefferson had strongly urged the claims of Virginia as a site for the proposed institution. He was the champion of the idea of a university for his own State, although there was nothing provincial in his advocacy. He clearly recognized that the transfer of what he considered the greatest university in continental Europe would give "such an éclat and such solid advantages, as would insure a very general concourse to it of the youths from all our States, and probably from the other parts of America, which are free enough to adopt it." Nevertheless, Jefferson's thought was clearly that of a university for Virginia. It might be "near enough to the Federal capital to be regarded as an appendage," but it should be within Virginia's limits, and thus "the splendor of the two objects would reflect usefully on each other." Jefferson foresaw two great capitals of the nation, one of them political, situated in the City of Washington; the other, intellectual, situated in Virginia, retired from the world. A shadow of monasticism clung to the free-thinking Jefferson. His university was to be "so far from the Federal City as moral considerations would recommend." The youth were to be protected from temptation by placing them at a safe distance from municipal society. His idea was that of a rural Oxford or Cambridge lying over against an American London. It was the historic idea of most English and American colleges. It is an idea both sound and healthful, from many points of view, and it will undoubtedly endure in school and college as long as country life and human nature endure. In American educational history this idea has shown more vitality and has received more vigorous support than have national or municipal ideas in education; but these latter have a latent strength which will

one day appear, especially in the higher education of great cities like New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington.

In his letter to Jefferson, March 15, 1795, Washington said he had little hesitation in giving the Federal City preference over all other places for the institution, because (1) that city is the permanent seat of the government of this Union, and there its laws and policy are better understood than elsewhere ; (2) Washington is central, midway between the North and the South ; (3) the District of Columbia is convenient of access for the whole State of Virginia ; (4) his own private bequest, inadequate in itself, would become useful as part of a national endowment ; (5) jurisdiction by the General Government would give the university advantages which no other place than the City of Washington would possess ; “and lastly, as this seminary is contemplated for the completion of education and study of the sciences, not for boys in their rudiments, it will afford the students an opportunity of attending the debates in Congress, and thereby becoming *more liberally and better acquainted with the principles of law and government.*”

This was Washington's cherished idea of a national university. It was primarily the idea of *a national school of politics and administration*, taught in connection with other liberal arts and sciences, in the capital city of the United States, for the highest education of American youth. It was an idea born of the old College of William and Mary, where capitol and college faced each other, and where the statesmen of Virginia had been trained for their great work of liberating the colonies and of framing a federal constitution. The idea of a national university grew in Washington's mind with his own official connection as chancellor of William and Mary, with his election and re-election as President of these United States, with the establishment of the District of Columbia and of the nation's capital on the borders of Virginia, with his enlarged opportunity of employing Virginia's gift for a purpose at once national and Virginian, with the growing desire of his old age to see his country permanently united and to leave it in a state of enduring peace.

WASHINGTON'S VIEWS OF MILITARY EDUCATION.

The great idea did not die with Washington. It has been transmitted by successive generations of men and it remains a legacy to the future. There is one national institution which owes its origin to Washington's foresight, and that is the Military Academy at West Point. Suggested to Congress in the same speech wherein he recommended a national university, this government institution has by its untarnished record and inestimable services to the country more than vindicated the wisdom of its great advocate. Washington said to Congress : “However pacific the general policy of a nation may be, it ought never to be without an adequate stock of military knowledge for emergencies.” He maintained that a dearth of such knowledge would impair the energy of its character, hazard its safety, or expose it to even greater evils when war

could not be avoided. "The art of war," he said, "is at once comprehensive and complicated; it demands much previous study." The United States discovered the depth of this wisdom by the sad experience of a protracted civil war. The sectional division of regular army officers in that unhappy conflict was caused by sectional strife in politics, from which neither States, nor families, nor men could escape; but the very sectional distribution of military skill and martial discipline was one of the most redeeming features of the war, for it prevented untrained masses of men on both sides from reverting to general bushwhacking and primitive savagery.

PRACTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF WEST POINT.

West Point represents more than the continuity of military science, which is indeed indispensable in all civilized states, whether for external defence or the preservation of domestic peace. The Military Academy stands for the historical continuity, under national auspices, of that very idea which made Washington first in peace after the American Revolution. It is the idea of strengthening the country by internal improvement, and binding its different sections indissolubly together by ties of economic interest, such as river improvements, canals, roads, bridges, and other great public works described under the comprehensive name of *engineering*. The constant employment of army engineers in such ways by the national Government, and in the direction of public works in our large cities, for example, in Philadelphia and New York, indicates what West Point education is worth in these piping times of peace.

Another practical lesson suggested by the Military Academy and by the regular army organization, recruited from it, is that of a *national system of civil service, recruited at government training schools*. Washington's saying concerning the art of war might well be applied to the art of administration: it "is at once comprehensive and complicated; it demands much previous study; the possession of it, in its most improved and perfect state, is always of great moment to the security of a nation. This, therefore, ought to be a serious care of every Government; and for this purpose, an academy, where a regular course of instruction is given, is an obvious expedient, which different nations have successfully employed." The schools of administration now flourishing in Paris and Berlin are based upon precisely the same idea as that proposed by Washington in his plan for a national university in the Federal City.

INFLUENCE OF WILLIAM AND MARY UPON THE SOUTH.

If any justification were to be sought for the national idea in education, it might be found in the historical influence of a single institution like the College of William and Mary upon the entire South. If one small institution, inadequately endowed and struggling against many

depressing conditions, could nevertheless send currents of intellectual life throughout every southern State, much more such an institution as that proposed by George Washington, if supported by the prestige and resources of the national Government, would have exerted a healthful, wholesome influence upon the country at large.

It is interesting to trace the widening influence of the College of William and Mary as shown by the catalogue of students educated at that institution. The writer has examined with some care the lists of names and residences, representing the whole clientage of the institution, and has corrected his own results by the further inquiries of one of his students from the South. It has been ascertained, as might perhaps have been expected, that, during the colonial period, the student representation at William and Mary was largely provincial. During the eighteenth century there were only six students from outside Virginia. Four of these came from Maryland and two from North Carolina. In sharp contrast to this small number of students from outside the Old Dominion stands the list of 708 Virginians and 14 Indians.¹ These numbers are fairly well authenticated. Probably there were many more, for the records of William and Mary are very imperfect. From the beginning of the present century down to the outbreak of the civil war, when the college was temporarily broken up, the distribution of students by States is clearly shown in the following table, prepared by Mr. C. L. Smith, of Raleigh, N. C., a graduate of Wake Forest College, and now holding a university scholarship in Baltimore.

NUMBER OF STUDENTS AT WILLIAM AND MARY, 1801-1861.

Where from.	Number.	Where from.	Number.
Virginia	1,869	Louisiana	9
District of Columbia	7	Tennessee	7
Maryland	28	Kentucky	12
Delaware	1	Missouri	1
North Carolina	58	Illinois	1
South Carolina	7	Pennsylvania	3
Georgia	19	New York	3
Florida	2	Massachusetts	3
Alabama	23	Maine	1
Mississippi	14		

¹ The *Spotswood Letters*, ii, 64, speak of seventeen Indians as studying at William and Mary in Governor Spotswood's time: "Upon the encouragement of a fund settled on ye Colledge by the deceas'd Mr. Robert Boyle, I endeavour'd to dispose our Tributary Indians to send hither their children to be taught and educated in ye Christian faith, and accordingly 17 of their boys are now at the Colledge." At least fourteen Indians are mentioned by name in the collective catalogue.

The subject of Indian education in this country would be worth investigating historically. Valuable materials for beginning the subject in Virginia, where the Hampton school for Indian training now flourishes, may be found in E. D. Neill's *Virginia Vetusta*. The first thought of a school or college for Virginia was the idea of an Indian mission school. American education is almost as closely connected with the church, historically speaking, as are the monastic and cathedral schools of mediæval Europe, out of which colleges and universities developed.

The student representation, as shown by this table, is overwhelmingly Virginian, as compared with the numbers from other States; but it is interesting to see how many came from beyond Virginia's borders, particularly from North Carolina and Alabama. In all probability the representatives of these States were, to some extent, returning waves of colonial influence which went forth from old Virginia into all the South, as New England influence pervaded the West. Virginians who went from the Old Dominion as pioneers sent back their sons to be educated at William and Mary. While the above figures by no means stand for the educated classes of the South (for every State soon developed colleges of its own), the table at least shows that the influence of William and Mary touched every State south of Mason and Dixon's line, even penetrating Louisiana and distant Missouri.

North of Mason and Dixon's line the influence of William and Mary was not so marked. From 1800 to 1861, only eleven northern men came to Williamsburg to be educated. Of the three students from Massachusetts, two, namely Henry A. Dearborn, son of General Dearborn, Secretary of War, and Benjamin Crowningshield, son of the Secretary of the Navy, doubtless came for local reasons, because their fathers were temporarily in Washington. While southern students went in considerable numbers to Yale, Harvard, and Princeton, northern students were almost unknown in the annals of southern colleges.

And yet the College of William and Mary was an excellent institution; it had a faculty which trained some very eminent public men. Indeed the conspicuous merit of southern leaders in politics was due to their superior political education, which early ranged over topics that were not prominent in northern colleges until after the War, notably history, political economy, and the science of government and administration. The University of Virginia, which evolved from old William and Mary by a process of historical evolution, represented, from its very beginning, the true university spirit and very advanced methods of teaching by lectures. It commanded some of the best professorial talent which this country has ever seen, for Jefferson, acting upon an idea derived from his Geneva project, secured the services of highly distinguished teachers from Europe, notably George Long, the historian of Rome. Nevertheless, Virginia failed to draw any considerable number of students from the North.

It is easy to suggest explanations of this general fact. It may be accounted for by a variety of causes, such as climate, the existence of excellent schools and colleges at the North, the difficulty and expense of travel, preference for denominational institutions, social and political differences; but undeniably there was more or less of provincialism and a decided sectionalism in American college education, North and South. There was no help for it. Washington's great scheme for a national university in the Federal City had come to naught. There was no choice for American youth except to follow obediently in the tracks

of local prejudice in which their fathers had trod. With due allowance for exceptions, it may be truly said that education kept within the lines which politics had drawn. Northern students rarely came south; and southerners, if they went north to college, remained southern in spirit.

The College of William and Mary nevertheless continued to enlarge its influence, chiefly within southern borders, although many of her graduates acquired a national reputation in public life. It is forcibly said by a writer on William and Mary College: "It sent out nearly twenty members of Congress, fifteen United States Senators, seventeen Governors, thirty-seven judges, a Lieutenant-General [Winfield Scott] and other high officers to the Army, two commodores to the Navy, twelve professors, seven Cabinet officers; the chief draughtsman and author of the Constitution, Edmund Randolph; the most eminent of the Chief Justices, John Marshall; and three Presidents of the United States. And this list, honorable as it is, by no means exhausts the number of really eminent and influential men who owed the formation and development of their intellects and characters to William and Mary. In the long list of students preserved from 1720 to the present time will be found a great array of names holding a very high rank in the Commonwealth of Virginia and the States of the South and West—in the pulpit, at the bar, and in the local legislatures. These, without attaining the eminence of those first mentioned, were the most prominent citizens of the communities where they lived, and were chiefly instrumental in giving character and direction to social and political affairs."¹

INFLUENCE OF WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE ON KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE.

The following extracts from an article in the *Courier-Journal* of Louisville, Ky., are interesting illustrations of the influence of William and Mary College upon Kentucky and Tennessee:

The first Kentuckian entered as a student at William and Mary apparently was Wm. T. Barry, a member of the class of 1803, and in later life Postmaster-General of the United States. Another member of the same class was A. W. C. Logan, of Kentucky. Richard C. Anderson, of Kentucky, first minister to Colombia, South America (so the catalogue tells us), was of the class of 1804, and he had as a classmate Winfield Scott, of Dinwiddie County, Virginia, in which the battle-scarred city of Petersburg is located. Dinwiddie County gets its name from a royal governor who presided over the destinies of Virginia from 1752 to 1758, and it was during his administration that Braddock's defeat occurred and Washington's fame as a soldier dawned. This same Winfield Scott was destined to command Kentuckians on many stricken fields of Canada and Mexico in later years. The Crittendens were at Williamsburg in 1805-'06, and for a term or two later. John J. Crittenden lived in the traditions of Williamsburg for fifty years after he left college in 1807. He was of Welsh blood on his father's side and of Huguenot maternal ancestry. The son of a revolutionary officer, what more natural than that the Woodford County youth should seek mental nurture at the fountain where revolutionary sages and patriots had grown in wisdom,

¹ John Esten Cooke, in *Scribner's Monthly*, November, 1875. Article on "William and Mary College."

and should take with him all the Kentucky boys he could induce to accompany him to the classic shades of Williamsburg? The late President Tyler, who had little reason to like General Scott, who joined the Whig leaders in their assaults upon his administration, used to tell of the admiration felt in Williamsburg for the high-spirited and talented Kentucky youths who were his classmates, and whom Scott cultivated with poor success. The acrid and haughty demeanor of the future General-in-chief of the armies of the Union had little of genuine sympathy from the *bonhomie* of the rollicking youth of Eastern Virginia and their Kentucky cousins, who had come from their distant homes to be educated in the political faith and the humanities which were conspicuous features of the training at William and Mary. Jefferson and Monroe and the elder Tyler, the Harrisons for generations, the Tylers and John Marshall, had gone through that wholesome curriculum to become the apostles of the Revolution. What better school for the youth of succeeding generations? In the class of 1807 was J. Hawkins, of Kentucky, whom the catalogue mentions as successor of Henry Clay in Congress. The catalogue is more specific as to Robert Wash, of Kentucky, who, in the class of 1808, graduated as bachelor of law, and became a judge in Missouri. Did Kentucky fill up so rapidly with immigrants that young Wash had to imitate Daniel Boone and seek room in the western wilds? Nathaniel Smith matriculated as a student in 1808 from Kentucky, and in 1809 John Croghan, of Kentucky, graduated as bachelor of arts, while a fellow student and Kentuckian was Charles Todd, who, the catalogue says, was afterwards minister to Russia. Of special interest to Louisville and its neighborhood is the career of George Croghan, who, in 1810, took his diploma as bachelor of arts, and returned to his home, near Louisville, crowned with college honors. The next year he was with Harrison at Tippecanoe and earned a captain's commission. At Fort Meigs, May 5, 1813, he was aide-de-camp to Harrison, and there is little wonder that "Old Tippecanoe" should have chosen him for the desperate enterprise of holding Fort Sandusky, so essential to the integrity of Harrison's communications. That defence of Fort Sandusky, located on the present site of the town of Fremont, in Ohio, is a thrilling story of valor and patriotism. A Kentucky youth, born in 1791, graduating with high honor in 1810 at the alma mater of the statesmen of the pre-revolutionary period, is found in 1814, when just 23, holding a position of vital consequence with 160 riflemen against a British force of regulars and Indians of ten times their number. Sunset found the foe in full flight. The demanded surrender did not take place. The savage allies of England had no chance to scalp Croghan's boys; Kentucky rifles had dealt death unerringly; Harrison's communications were saved and Croghan was a hero. So was Andrew Jackson, when, during his administration, he destroyed papers containing charges against Croghan, then a veteran officer in the Army, declaring that the "defender of Fort Sandusky has a right to commit the offence charged against him whenever he d—d pleases." Croghan died at New Orleans, singularly enough, on the 8th of January, 1849—date and locality, commemorative of "Old Hickory's" defeat of the British, also commemorate his justice to a hero and patriot.

The roll of Kentucky's alumni of William and Mary ends with the name of George W. Richardson, of the class of 1836-'37. Chancellor Bibb was at Williamsburg, as a student from Prince Edward County, early in the century. He emigrated to Kentucky afterward. The Kentucky Speeds had their progenitors in the tobacco-growing sections of Virginia. A classmate of one of them in 1825 (the Speeds were educated at Williamsburg) was ex-Secretary of the Interior Stuart, of the Fillmore Cabinet, still alive, and the oldest living alumnus of William and Mary, save ex-Governor Wyndham Robertson, who lives in Southwest Virginia.

William and Mary remained the leading educational institution south of Boston until after the dawn of the present century. In some of its schools, notably that of law, presided over by Judge Tucker, uncle of Representative Randolph Tucker, and half-brother of John Randolph of Roanoke, and that of history and economy, in charge

of Professor Dew, its influence was projected into the thought of a full half of the current century. The social characteristics of Williamsburg yielded slowly. The glamour of vice-royalty lingered. Sir Roger de Coverley, the minuet, and the old English country dances yielded to something more modern, as the dances of twenty-five years ago have given place to the german. Leading lawyers still lived at the old capital, among them George Wythe, under whom Henry Clay subsequently studied law at Richmond. Wythe was a signer of the Declaration of Independence and an eminent jurist. He died at Williamsburg, poisoned by his nephew, and on the highest *colored* authority I am assured that the ghost of Chancellor Wythe revisits the chamber in which he died on the anniversary of his death, making no other sign of his presence than passing an icy hand over the face of the sleeping occupant of the room. There are other "spooks" in Williamsburg, among them that of a young French officer, who died during the occupation of the town by the armies of Washington and Rochambeau, and who insists upon showing himself in the mansion where he died.

When the Kentucky boys crossed the mountains and came through Southwest Virginia, via Lynchburg and Richmond, and took the old stage-coach down the peninsula for Williamsburg, the Jeffersonian Democratic idea was omnipotent in Virginia, as it was in Kentucky. Perhaps that was why their Kentucky parents wanted them at William and Mary. There could be no danger of the boys falling into the "heresies of Federalism" where the ideas of Jefferson and Madison were the almost undisputed creed. Although John Marshall and Light-horse Harry Lee were not without ample following in Upper Virginia of their Washingtonian and Hamiltonian Federalism, the Alien and Sedition Laws and the general course of the Adams administration settled the political faith of both Virginia and her daughter Kentucky for a long term of years. Jefferson made Kentucky the chosen field for the promulgation of strict-construction States' rights doctrines. Kentucky led Virginia in adopting the Resolutions of '98. Meanwhile, Washington and Patrick Henry died in the same year, 1799, and their great personal popularity was lost to the party of Federalism. In 1801 Jefferson became President, and the tide of national feeling ran altogether in favor of the Jeffersonian Republican-Democratic party, and that party was nothing if not bitterly and proscriptively anti-Federalist and anti-British. Those Kentucky and Virginia boys at William and Mary studied the humanities and law and politics in thrilling times. Jefferson was active in promoting the overthrow of all pro-English sympathies, even in dress and manners. Powder and silk stockings, and swords and etiquette, gave way to democratic simplicity in attire and address. Some of the Kentucky boys were at William and Mary when the Leopard fired upon the Chesapeake. Scott hurried from college to get a commission in the Army, not even taking time to get his diploma. Croghan carried his sheepskin with him, and his heirs should value above price the parchment that proclaims the successful student at the oldest of Virginia institutions, who was to add greatly to Kentucky's renown in war. The course of events throughout Jefferson's administration prefigured the war with England which followed during Madison's administration, and which settled American political supremacy, with the brief interregnum of 1825-'29, for more than forty years in favor of the Democratic-Republican party. Virginia and Kentucky divided at last when the test was loyalty to Jackson—Virginia believing in Jackson as the heir to the leadership of Jefferson. A son of Virginia, Henry Clay, led his adopted State away from Jackson and Van Buren ultimately, and he was helped to do so by John J. Crittenden, who became Attorney-General under Harrison, while his old class-mate at William and Mary, John Tyler, was made Vice-President. John Tyler was not the only Virginian who believed in the Kentucky judgment as to Jackson, for he was sustained powerfully in his anti-Jacksonism by Littleton Waller Tazewell and Benjamin Watkins Leigh, both of whom were eminent United States Senators.

Tennessee contributed to William and Mary neither so early as Kentucky nor so many students. The catalogue gives as the first Tennessean who was a student at Williamsburg, D. C. Topp, who graduated as bachelor of law in 1829 and 1830, and

in the matriculation book he is registered as the son of John Topp. In 1835-'36, James Oldham is registered as from Tennessee, and among the older dames of Williamsburg I have heard much pleasant reference to the agreeable characteristics of this gentleman. In 1838-'39 and 1840-'41, James Buchanan, John W. McKessack, Wm. F. Wood, and Samuel White were students hailing from Tennessee. The catalogue refers to Mr. Wood as having taken the degrees of bachelor of arts and bachelor of law, and to Samuel White as the son of Judge Hugh L. White. This was the Judge Hugh Lawson White whom Henry A. Wise mentions in his *Seven Decades* as the "Cato of America." It was Judge White that, previous to the Harrisburg convention which nominated Harrison and Tyler for President and Vice-President, warned Mr. Clay of the combinations of the New York politicians to defeat his nomination by the Whigs. The last matriculate from Tennessee before the war was Edmund T. Wilkins, "son of Dr. Benjamin Wilkins, a distinguished physician, and superintendent of the California Lunatic Asylum," says the catalogue.

In the president of William and Mary College of to-day, Kentuckians like Mr. Watterson and Dr. D. S. Yandell will recall Col. Benjamin S. Ewell, of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston's staff during the late war. His brother, Lieut.-Gen. Richard S. Ewell, is buried near Nashville. For forty years President Ewell has identified himself with the venerable institution which now languishes. Declining professorships in other institutions, he adheres to the sacred charge placed in his hands years ago. To him I am indebted for many interesting historical facts connected with the political and social development of Virginia. In his companionship I looked at the rare documents showing the interest of the only Stuart, while on the English throne, in the fortunes of William and Mary College, who reigned after the succession of King William and Queen Mary, after whom William and Mary College and Williamsburg were named. For the "Good Queen Anne," so legend says, loved her "royal college," and certainly she gave abundant evidence that she felt no bitterness because the "ancient colony and dominion of Virginia" had joyfully accepted the fruits of the revolution of 1688, among them being the dethronement of her royal father, King James the Second. With this venerable preceptor of students, some of whom have earned national reputation, and many others local distinction in many States, I reviewed the remaining monuments of the past, in which Williamsburg is still rich, despite the aggressions of time and the destruction of war. In the campus of the college stands the monument erected to Lord Botetourt, most loved of the royal governors, erected by the Colonial Assembly in 1773, after his death. A rollicking, boyish figure is that of his Excellency, who drove his coach and six white horses across the Palace Green fronting his royal residence. Then Virginians were more loyal to the representative of the King of England than two or three years later, when Patrick Henry uttered his defiance of George III, and Jefferson said, "resistance to tyrants is obedience to God."

F. H. ALFRIEND.

INFLUENCE OF PRESIDENT DEW.

One of the most influential professors at the College of William and Mary during the present century was Thomas Roderick Dew (1802-1846). He was a graduate of the institution and, in 1827, at the age of twenty-three, became professor of political economy, history, and metaphysics. A copy of the laws and regulations of the College of William and Mary, passed and published in 1830, shows that Professor Dew then held the "professorship of political law," with a salary of \$1,000. His duties were defined as follows: he was to deliver lectures on natural and national law, political economy, metaphysics, government, and history. The textbook on natural and national law was to be Vattel, with reference to

Rutherford's Institutes ; in political economy, Smith's Wealth of Nations ; in metaphysics, Browne abridged ; Locke on Government, and Rousseau's Social Contract. Lectures were required at least three times a week upon each subject.

In 1836 Professor Dew was made president of the college, and held that office until his death in Paris in 1846. He was to the College of William and Mary what Professor Cooper was to the College of South Carolina—a *teacher whose doctrines entered into the political life of the southern people*. In 1829 he published his Lectures on the Restrictive System in economics, which is thought to have had great weight in shaping the tariff laws of 1832. He was also a scientific advocate of slavery, and represented the political views of Calhoun. John Quincy Adams regarded Dew's argument on domestic slavery (1833) as inaugurating a new era in the history of this country. It is said to have prevented emancipation in Virginia.

Professor Dew gave the most thorough and comprehensive course on history of which the writer has found any record during this early period. When most colleges were teaching the subject merely by textbooks and chiefly along classical lines of study, this man was lecturing systematically to his classes upon the Laws, Customs, Manners, and Institutions of the Ancient and Modern Nations. A published digest of Dew's lectures has been examined by the writer with great interest. While making no professions to originality of research, the lectures were clearly a practical application of the lessons of all past history to the political needs of American youth. As the title of the published digest would indicate, Professor Dew laid chief stress upon laws, manners, customs, and *institutions*.

The man was well read in the best historical literature of his time. The results of French, German, and English scholarship in the field of classical history were familiar to the lecturer, and his observations are highly suggestive of parallels between ancient and modern politics. He specializes somewhat upon the feudal system, chivalry, the rise of the ecclesiastical system, the growth of cities, progress of royal power, standing armies, balance of power, the Reformation, the English constitution, and the French Revolution. While the Socratic method of question and answer is conspicuous in the early part of his syllabus, which was evidently intended for younger students, the topical method of treatment predominates throughout the greater part of the digest. No unprejudiced student can examine this work without coming to the conviction that the author, in his use of the scholastic method of treating history in distinct theses, in well-rounded periods and compact sentences, knew precisely what he was about and lectured in such a way that students could catch his points. For the ground which it professes to cover, this digest embodies a remarkable collection of notes for lectures and dictations. It would be very difficult to match them anywhere in this country in the period from 1827 to 1846. It appears that the

digest was first privately printed during the lifetime of the professor for the use of his class, and was used as a companion book in his lecture courses for the purpose of diminishing the labor of taking notes.¹

THE GENERAL PLAN OF INSTRUCTION IN 1830.

The work of the college appears to have been disposed in departments or groups, rather than arranged in a continuous and required curriculum. There were the departments of (1) the ancient languages; (2) the modern languages; (3) the sciences. In the latter department there were four Junior and four Senior classes, and the Law class. There was the Junior Moral class, embracing rhetoric, belles-lettres, logic, ethics, philosophy, &c.; the Junior Mathematical, extending as far as solid geometry, plane trigonometry, mensuration, and surveying; the Junior Political, embracing civil history, ancient and modern, occupying the first half of the course, and the law of nature and nations and the science of government, occupying the second half. The four Senior classes were the Senior Moral, the Senior Mathematical, the Senior Political, and the Natural Philosophical, which carried the students into very advanced work for those times. A certain number of these class courses was required for the degree of bachelor of arts, and certain courses, *e. g.*, history, were elective. There was enough class work offered to occupy three years, but a student could secure a degree in two years. The law course was quite distinct from any hitherto mentioned: it embraced lectures upon the law as it existed in Virginia, upon police, or administration, the history and principles of the constitutions of the United States and of Virginia. Blackstone's Commentaries and Madison's Reports were the text-books in law. The method of instruction in law, history, and political science was by lectures, combined with "recitations from appropriate text-books."

CAUSES OF THE DECLINE OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

At the outbreak of the American Revolution William and Mary College is said to have been the richest college in the country. The insti-

¹ Professor Dew's *Digest of the Laws, Customs, Manners, and Institutions of the Ancient and Modern Nations* was published a few years after the author's death by D. Appleton & Co. (New York, 1851, 662 pp., royal octavo). For facts concerning his life, see the *Southern Literary Messenger*, October, 1856, vol. 23, No. 4; Andrew Ten Brook's *American State Universities*, p. 8; and Bishop Meade's *Old Ministers, Churches, and Families in Virginia*, i, 177. The good bishop speaks of Professor Dew as "a Virginia gentleman, a graduate of the college, and a scholar. His amiable disposition, fine talents, tact at management, great zeal, and unwearied assiduity, were the means of raising the college to as great prosperity as perhaps had ever been its lot at any time since its first establishment, notwithstanding many opposing difficulties. To this we must make one exception, viz, as to the classical and mathematical departments, under some of the old and ripe scholars from England before the Revolution."

De Bow, in his *Industrial Resources of the Southern States*, iii, 454, touches another side of President Dew's influence, when he says that his "able essay on the institution of slavery entitles him to the lasting gratitude of the whole South." The future historian will need to study the teaching and preaching, the political philosophy and the sociology of the South, before he can understand De Bow's honest opinion.

tution, during that struggle, lost its most important sources of revenue by (1) the depreciation of paper money, which wasted its income from endowments and scholarships; (2) the diversion of English endowment funds, notably the Boyle trust, into English channels; (3) the abolition of the tobacco tax once levied upon Maryland and Virginia in the interest of the college; (4) the cession to the United States of Virginia's claims to Western lands.¹

This last was, perhaps, the most serious loss of all those enumerated; for, by reason of the controlling position of the college in the agrarian affairs of Virginia, the institution would have profited enormously by the survey and organization of that vast western domain, out of which not only States and Territories have been carved, but State universities, agricultural colleges, and thousands of common schools have been created.

There was one economic gain to the college by the Revolution. The palace lands adjoining Williamsburg were vested in the institution, and certain other property not required for public uses was bestowed upon William and Mary.² Madison, writing in 1784, said that the value of the lands given to the college and lying about Williamsburg was estimated at £10,000.³ This was doubtless an over-estimate.

The greatest loss which the College of William and Mary ever sustained was the loss of the capital of Virginia. When, in 1779, in fear of British invasion of the Yorktown peninsula, it was resolved, upon Jefferson's motion, to remove the political centre of the State from Williamsburg to Richmond, the very nerve of the royal old college was cut. The political and social support which would have sustained the institution, in spite of its revolutionary losses, was now destined to fall away. The connection between college and capital was broken. Henceforth the college was compelled to live upon its history and upon its reputation as a church institution.

A fine opportunity for a complete transformation of the colonial college into a State university was lost when Jefferson's first educational project failed. In 1779, the very year of the transfer of the capital to Richmond, Jefferson reported a bill in favor of raising William and Mary to a higher plane. The bill failed, because the ecclesiastical idea of the colonial college was not in harmony with the republican spirit

¹ President Benjamin S. Ewell, in his *Remarks before the Committee on Education and Labor*, of the House of Representatives, January 24, 1872, and in his *Report and Address to the Board of Visitors of the college*, at their convocation in Richmond, April 18, 1879, has fully discussed the economic causes leading to the decline of William and Mary in the last century. "In 1786 its entire capital in money was but \$2,503.66." Its other property, besides building and academic equipment, was in unproductive lands lying in King William and Sussex Counties, with a small tract in Nottoway. From this economic plight the college was gradually raised to "a good degree of prosperity" through the efforts of Bishop Madison. Various applications were made in vain to Congress, the last in 1854, for reimbursement for revolutionary losses.

² Hening's *Statutes*, xi, 406, c. 34, §3.

³ Madison's *Writings*, i, 88.

of the times. The Presbyterians and other denominations represented in that complex house of Virginia burgesses could not vote public money for an Episcopalian establishment, however noble and worthy; but upon such an institutional compromise as that which Jefferson finally proposed they could all unite. Non-sectarianism was one of the deepest foundations in the political establishment of the highest education in Virginia.

Jefferson and the Virginians were perfectly right in their educational policy. In harmony with the needs of the State, they developed the largest and freest idea of a university which this country had hitherto known. The political, social, and economic energy which would have revitalized old William and Mary, had she become a secular institution, was drawn off to the new university. The birthright of the oldest and best college in the South was lost when the University of Virginia was inaugurated. With all honor to Jefferson for his sound ideas respecting education, one cannot help regretting that his own home had not been in Richmond rather than at Monticello. In the former case, he would perhaps have founded, in the metropolis of Virginia and of the South, an institution embodying all the excellence of the old college and of the new university. The idea of a college-capital would have been historically transformed into a university-capital. The higher education would have continued to flourish in the centre of politics, society, business, in the very heart of church and state, as the College of William and Mary had flourished in Williamsburg for three quarters of a century.

PROPOSED REMOVAL TO RICHMOND IN 1824.

Naturally the friends of the old college did not look with favor upon the new university project. Joseph C. Cabell, writing from Richmond to Jefferson, December 24, 1818, significantly says: "The party hostile to the university come chiefly from the lower country, and are within convenient distance of William and Mary. The better educated part of them, whilst they, their sons, connections, or friends have been educated at William and Mary, quote Smith, the *Edinburgh Review*, and Dugald Stewart, to prove that education should be left to individual enterprise."

In 1824 the college party made a bold move, which, if successful, would have defeated Jefferson's project for a State university near Monticello, and have forced a compromise or a consolidation of interests. The move was no less than a proposition to remove the College of William and Mary to the city of Richmond. Cabell discovered the project early in May. He wrote to Jefferson from Williamsburg, May 5, 1824: "A scheme is now in agitation at this place, the subject of which is to remove the College of William and Mary to the city of Richmond. All the professors of the college, except the professor of law [Judge James Semple], are decidedly in favor of it. Chancellor Brown and others,

of the Board of Visitors, will give it their support. * * * It will most unquestionably be attempted, and will be powerfully supported. * * * The clergy, the Federal party, the metropolis, and probably the faculty of medicine throughout the State, will advocate the removal. * * * The loss of the buildings here would probably be compensated by donations from the corporation of Richmond, or from the General Assembly. The capital of the college is upward of \$100,000 * * * My present opinion is decidedly opposed to the plan; because I know that the college would be made a rival to the university, and we should lose in that institution more than we should gain in the college."

Jefferson proposed to meet this move toward Richmond on the part of the College of William and Mary by a move equally bold. He advised Cabell to create no obstacles, to give no alarm. Jefferson said: "Let them petition for the removal; let them get the old structure completely on wheels, and not till then put in our claim to its reception." In other words, when once the question of William and Mary was submitted to the General Assembly, he proposed to capture the entire endowment for his own university. There can be no question about this intention. He said to Cabell: "The \$100,000 of principal which you say still remains to William and Mary, by its interest of \$6,000, would give us the two deficient professors, with an annual surplus for the purchase of books." Jefferson frankly declared his opposition to the establishment of William and Mary in Richmond, and intimated that if that city pressed her claims to the old college she would create such jealousy in the midland counties as to endanger her own position as the seat of government.

The people of Richmond were strongly in favor of the proposed removal, and it would have been a fortunate thing for that city, for the college, for the university, and for the State at large, if all interests could have been united. It was a crisis in the history of William and Mary. Her best friends were nearly all agreed that Richmond would prove her salvation. On the 24th of November, 1824, the convocation of visitors and governors voted the following resolutions:

1. That it is expedient to apply to the legislature of Virginia to authorize the visitors to change the site of the College of William and Mary, with a view to a more extended diffusion of the benefits of the institution.

2. That the faculty of the college be instructed to prepare and to present to the General Assembly a memorial for the purpose of procuring the passage of a law in conformity with the above resolution.

JEFFERSON'S RIVAL POLICY.

Cabell wrote to Jefferson, December 17, 1824: "The hostile party in Richmond and the college aim decidedly at a great institution connected with a medical school." Jefferson recognized the full significance of

the Richmond idea. He knew well that it meant the ultimate defeat of his own cherished project. He replied to Cabell, December 22, 1824: "The proposition to remove William and Mary College to Richmond, with its present funds, and to add to it a medical school, is nothing more nor less than to remove the university also to that place; because, if both remain, there will not be students enough to make either worthy the acceptance of men of the first order of science. They must each fall down to the level of our present academies, under the direction of common teachers, and our state of education must stand exactly where it now is. Few of the States have been able to maintain one university, none two."

Jefferson early discovered the great principles of centralization in the higher education and decentralization in common schools, principles which have been so ably advocated in these modern days by President Andrew D. White, of Cornell, a distinguished champion of State universities.¹ Finding that it was impossible to capture the endowment of William and Mary for the University of Virginia, Jefferson and Cabell agreed upon a plan still better suited for the strengthening of their own great project. They proposed to conquer their rivals by a division of the resources of William and Mary among a considerable number of college districts for the endowment of preparatory institutions, which should be tributary to the central University of Virginia. Jefferson wisely suggested the possibility of utilizing the local sentiment of rival towns and of building up existing academies into colleges at the expense of William and Mary. He mentioned Williamsburg, Richmond, Fredericksburg, Hampden-Sidney, Lynchburg, Lexington, Staunton, Winchester, etc. "Thus," he said, "of William and Mary, you will make ten colleges, each as useful as she ever was, leaving one in Williamsburg itself, placing as good a one within a day's ride of every man in the State, and get our whole scheme of education completely established."

This plan for decentralization in secondary education and centralization in the higher education was simply a reversion to Jefferson's original educational policy, reported to the Virginia legislature as early as 1779. Cabell recognized the wisdom of Jefferson's scheme for the defeat of his rivals, and urged him to prepare a bill as a possible substitute for the plan of removing the college to Richmond. "You alone," said Cabell January 16, 1825, "can prepare a bill that will enable us to vanquish the host opposed to us. * * * I send you a printed copy of your bill for public instruction, to enable you to execute the draft with less trouble. Let the funds be equally divided among the districts, whatever they may be. * * * I think the representatives will pause before they give away the rights and interests of their constituents. Great excitement prevails." Immediately upon receipt of this letter

¹ *Advanced Education: The Relations of the National and State Governments to Advanced Education.* By Andrew D. White. 1874.

the sage of Monticello, now in his eighty-second year, proceeded to draft the required bill, which is given in full in the correspondence between Jefferson and Cabell, the chief source of information respecting this educational crisis in the history of Virginia.

· TRIUMPH OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

The question of the removal of William and Mary to Richmond was adversely decided by the General Assembly, through the personal influence of Cabell, before any necessity arose for introducing Jefferson's bill, which would surely have routed all opposition. Cabell published an article in the *Constitutional Whig* and in the *Enquirer*, embodying his views and Jefferson's. His article carried the day. In explanation of this course, Cabell wrote to Jefferson February 3, 1825: "I saw the gathering necessity of setting up the colleges against the Richmond party, and it was requisite to show your former plans, and our efforts to sustain them." Again, on the 7th of February, Cabell writes: "I am happy to inform you that our efforts have eventuated in success, and that the college party have been defeated in the House of Delegates by a majority of 24. * * * My friends assure me that the essay under the signature of 'A friend of science,' with the extracts from your letter and bill, had all the effect I could possibly desire. It broke the ranks of the opposition completely." Thus by these two masterly politicians, Cabell and Jefferson, the Richmond cause of William and Mary was defeated.

· DESTRUCTION OF WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE IN THE CIVIL WAR.

When the civil war broke out, it was but natural that the professors and students of a thoroughly southern institution should follow the fortunes of their own section of the country. The intensity of feeling in those times is seen in the fact that ninety per cent. of the youth then pursuing a course of study at the college joined the Confederate Army. In the war of the American Revolution only fifty per cent. of the students from William and Mary took arms for the cause of independence. Except for a short interval, during the Yorktown campaign against Cornwallis, the old college continued its courses of instruction; but in 1861 the outbreak of war at its very doors made further scholastic work impossible. Everybody took arms. As men felt in that great crisis of the republic, so they fought.

The story of the destruction of William and Mary College shall be told in an extract from a government document of the United States: "The peninsula formed by the James and York Rivers was debatable ground, occupied alternately by the contending forces. Williamsburg, the site of William and Mary, is its strategic point, the key of the military position, and terrific battles were fought for its possession. In September, 1862, Williamsburg was held by a detachment of the United

States Army, but on the 9th of that month the place was attacked and occupied by a force of Confederate cavalry, who held the city until 11 o'clock of that day. Upon the evacuation by the rebel cavalry and the return of our troops, a body of stragglers from the United States forces, drunken, disorderly, and insubordinate, fired and destroyed the college building, with the library, apparatus, furniture, and other property therein belonging to the institution. Afterward, during the War, other houses and property of the college and connected therewith were destroyed by Union soldiers."¹

No less than five favorable reports² have been made, recommending congressional relief to William and Mary College for losses sustained as above described. President Ewell appeared before the Committee of Education and Labor at various times, advocating his worthy cause in the most judicious language. One of the notable speeches in support of the measure was made in 1876 by a northern Senator.

NORTHERN TRIBUTE TO WILLIAM AND MARY.

Hon. George F. Hoar, Senator from Massachusetts, in a speech advocating congressional relief to the College of William and Mary, said: "To spare, and if possible to protect, institutions of learning, is an obligation which the most civilized nations impose on themselves. Whenever, by accident or design, these institutions have been injured in war, such governments desire, if possible, to make reparation. History contains many conspicuous and interesting examples of this generous recognition. * * * In her bloodiest and angriest civil strifes, all factions in England have revered her institutions of learning. Her schools and colleges, whatever side they may have taken in civil war, have enjoyed immunity from its injuries, when even her stately and venerable cathedrals have not been spared. Think what permanence these schools enjoy, shielded from the storms of war by the beneficent principle we invoke. Wherever civilization exists, wherever men are humane and Christian, the college or the school, wisely founded, shall endure. I purchased at Eton, a few years since, a little book containing the history of the ten great schools of England. I was struck, in looking over it, to see the dates of their endowment: Eton, in 1440; Winchester, 1560; St. Paul's, 1509; Merchant Taylors', 1560; Charter House, 1641; Harrow, 1571; Rugby, 1567; Shrewsbury, 1549; Christ's, 1522; while the origin of Oxford and Cambridge is lost in the darkness of antiquity.

¹ House Report No. 9, 42d Congress, 2d Session, vol. 1, January 29, 1872.

² House Report No. 65, 41st Congress, 3d Session, vol. i, March 3, 1871; House Report No. 9, 42d Congress, 2d Session, vol. i, January 29, 1872; House Miscellaneous Document No. 247, 43d Congress, 1st Session, vol. iii, April 13, 1874; House Report No. 203, 44th Congress, 1st Session, vol. i, March 3, 1876; House Report No. 12, 45th Congress, 2d Session, vol. i, December 5, 1877.

Some of these reports contain valuable information respecting the history of the College of William and Mary.

“These schools have survived all the changes of dynasty, all the changes of institutions and manners; Puritan and Cavalier, York and Lancaster, have fought out their battles, and yet, in the wildest tempests of popular excitement, they—

‘Lift not their spears against the Muses’ bower.’

At Winchester William of Wykeham founded, in 1380, a school which still stands and has remained through six dynasties. Plantagenet, Lancaster, York, Tudor, Stuart, and Hanover have successively struggled for and occupied the English throne, while in the building which Wykeham in his lifetime planned and built the scholars of Winchester are still governed by the statutes which he framed.

“You will scarcely find an instance, in England or America, where a school or college, wisely founded, has died. *‘Whatever perishes, that shall endure.’* * * *

“But William and Mary has also her own peculiar claim on our regard. The great principles on which the rights of man depend, which inspired the statesmen of Virginia of the period of the Revolution, are the fruits of her teaching. The name of Washington, to whose genius in war and to whose influence in peace we owe the vindication of our liberties and the successful inauguration of our Constitution, is inseparably connected with William and Mary. She gave him his first commission in his youth; he gave to her his last public service in his age. Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence, who announced the great law of equality and human rights, in whose light our Constitution is at last and forever to be interpreted, drank his inspiration at her fountain. Marshall, without whose luminous and far-sighted exposition our Constitution could hardly have been put into successful operation, who imbedded forever in our constitutional law the great doctrines on which the measures that saved the Union are based, was a son of William and Mary. By the cession of the great Northwestern Territory, largely due to the efforts of one of her illustrious sons, she lost a great part of her revenues.

“Next to Harvard she is the oldest of American colleges. The gift of the famous Robert Boyle was held by her for many years, on condition of an annual payment of £90 to Harvard. Boyle was the friend of many of the early friends and benefactors of Harvard, and a correspondent of one of its first presidents. Each of these two seminaries, in its own part of the country, kindled and kept alive the sacred fire of liberty. In 1743, the year Jefferson was born, Samuel Adams maintained, on taking his degree of master of arts at Harvard, the affirmative of the thesis, whether it be lawful to resist the supreme magistrate, if the Commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved. In this hour of the calamity of her sister college I am glad to believe that Harvard does not forget the ancient tie. The mother of the Otises and Adamses would gladly extend her right hand to the mother of Jefferson and Marshall.

"If civil strife or foreign war shall ever again disturb our peace, every college in the land will be safer if Congress shall to-day make this solemn recognition of the rule we invoke. To deny it is to deny to the college of Washington the justice he did to Princeton. To deny it is to deny to Virginia the generous treatment which Connecticut received from Tryon, Philadelphia from Cooke, and William and Mary herself from Louis XVI¹ of France. The hallowed associations which surround this college prevent this case from being a precedent for any other. If you had injured it, you surely would have restored Mount Vernon; you had better honor Washington by restoring the living fountain of learning whose service was the pleasure of his last years, than by any useless and empty act of worship or respect toward his sepulchre.

"No other college in the country can occupy the same position. By the fortune of war that sacred institution, which has conferred on the country a hundredfold more benefit than any other institution or college in the South, has become a sufferer. I desire to hold out the olive branch to the people of Virginia, to the people of the South, to show them that we will join them in rebuilding the sacred place laid waste by the fortunes of war."

PRESENT CONDITION OF WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

Notwithstanding the many and earnest appeals for the relief of William and Mary, in spite of the acknowledged fact that the destruction of its property was the wanton act of undisciplined soldiery, an act contrary to the usages of war, which, even in the dark ages, spared churches and schools, no measure of relief for the College of William and Mary has ever been passed by the Congress of these United States. The Treasury is bursting with silver, and the annual surplus of \$100,000,000 is such a burden to the people that they cannot unload it. But still we hear the cry of "economy." If it were only exercised where it is really needed, there would be reason in the cry. The country is allowed to stagger under tariff laws that are too heavy to bear. The public land of the nation has been recklessly wasted; it is held by railroad corporations, in some instances, under false pretences; it is falling into the hands of foreign syndicates and English landlords; it is actually stolen to the extent of millions of acres, as shown by the latest reports of the Land Office. All this prodigality of the national substance is suffered by Congress, but for the great cause of EDUCATION, upon which the very *salus publica* of the American people depends, amid growing ignorance, socialism, and anarchy, for the cause of Light where darkness is increasing, there is only pitiful economy.

¹ Senator Hoar refers to the fact that during the French occupation of the college buildings at Williamsburg, in 1781, the president's house was accidentally destroyed by fire. The French Government restored the building and presented the college library with several hundred volumes.

An institution which was once a beacon of learning and of political intelligence, not alone for Virginia but for the whole South and for the country at large, has been suffered to decline by a nation which owes it an actual although paltry debt of \$70,000. Noble efforts have been made by individuals in the North and at the South to sustain the College of William and Mary. Even the Archbishop of Canterbury and other Englishmen lent their aid to kindle anew the torch of education at Williamsburg. Rebuffed by Congress, which seemed to take less interest in the cause of perpetuating sound learning than did originally the mercantile companies which founded Virginia and Massachusetts, the president of old William and Mary, Dr. Benjamin S. Ewell, went forth among the people to beg for his worthy cause. He even bore a certificate signed by a Union general, who won the battle of Gettysburg. General Meade was the author of the following letter:

"I am satisfied, on examination of the facts of the case, that the destruction of the buildings of William and Mary College by our troops was not only unnecessary and unauthorized, but was one of those deplorable acts of useless destruction which occur in all wars.

"In this view, and believing that its reconstruction, under the direction and superintendence of Professor Benj. S. Ewell, will tend to cement and strengthen the bonds of Union principles, I take great pleasure in recommending the appeal of Professor Ewell to all those who have the means and the disposition to assist him in the good work in which he is engaged."

Too often the higher education in America is forced to live by begging. In the case of William and Mary not even the license to beg, given by the hero of Gettysburg, was sufficient to command public attention. A few thousand dollars were subscribed by benevolent, whole-souled people in New York City, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, Washington, and elsewhere; but most generous of all gifts were those from Virginia, for there, in the decade following the War, men and women were less able to give to colleges and universities than they are now. Enough money was contributed to restore the main building of William and Mary and to organize the faculty anew, with departments of Latin, Greek, mathematics, modern languages, natural science, philosophy, and belles-lettres. But the annual expenses exceeded the annual income. Old endowments had been lost; new ones proved inadequate. At last the professors were all dismissed, because their salaries could not be paid. Consequently students disappeared. The president alone remained at his post. During one year he had one student, but even he has gone. The president remains still at the college. At the opening of every academic year, in October, he causes the chapel bell to be rung. Does it ring for the living, or does it toll for the dead? Is it the clang of a bell of warning to all friends of the higher education, a bell buoyed over a sunken rock upon the dangerous coast of popular ignorance and national neglect? or is it a summons to

men in every State and at the nation's Capitol to do their duty in the cause of higher education, to be "Wise and True and Just," as were the founders who gave that ancient motto to the College of William and Mary?

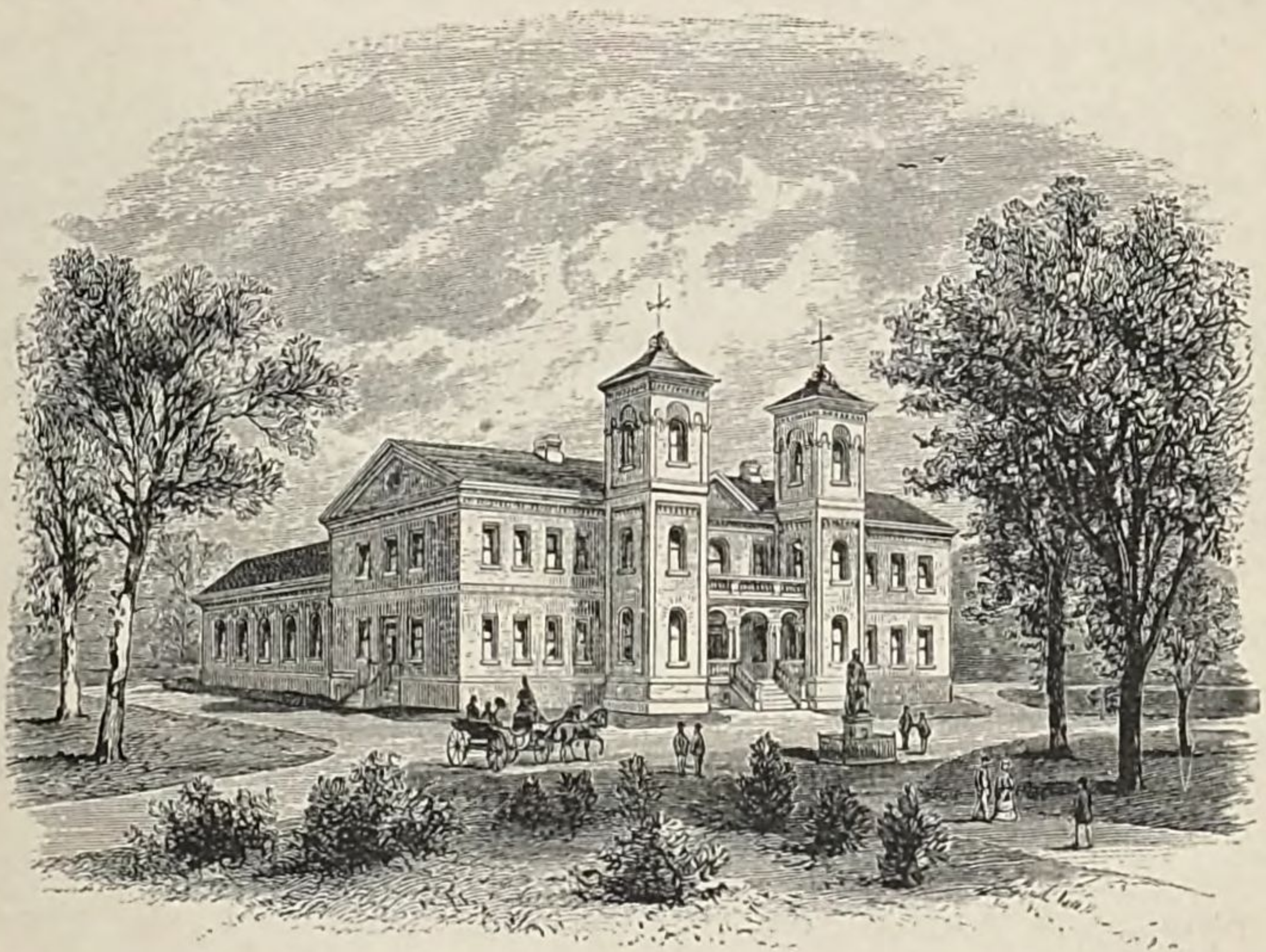
QUESTION OF REMOVAL: ALEXANDRIA OR RICHMOND.

The College of William and Mary has still a double chance for life in Virginia. By removal to Alexandria, into close proximity with the theological seminary, it would receive strength and encouragement from the Episcopalian Church, whose centre of ecclesiastical training in Virginia is in the old city on the Potomac, within easy reach of Washington and on the main line of travel between the North and the South. It would escape all the present disadvantages of isolation, municipal decay, reputed unhealthiness of environment, and would undoubtedly take a fresh departure as an ecclesiastical institution, without any serious break in the continuity of its traditions.

The site of the college was changed in its earliest years from Townsend's Point, on York River, just above Yorktown, where it was first planted by charter. This document provided that "If, by reason of unwholesomeness or any other cause, the said place shall not be approved of," the site might be changed "wheresoever else the General Assembly of our Colony of Virginia, or the major part of them, shall think fit, within the bounds of the aforesaid Colony, to continue for all times coming."

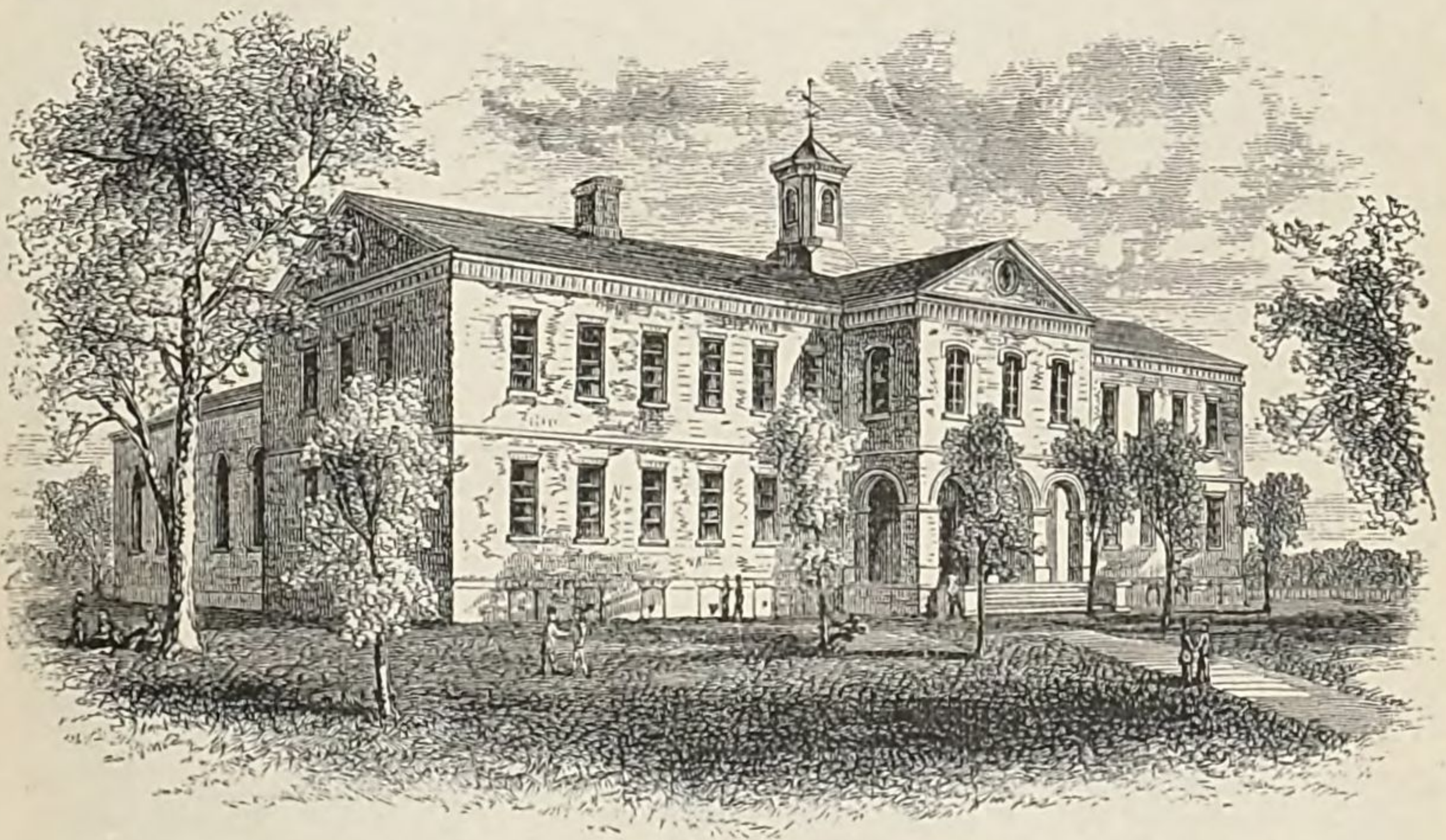
By a formal vote of the Board of Visitors and Trustees, in 1824, the question of removal from Williamsburg to Richmond was submitted to the authority of the General Assembly. If the case could be legally referred to that body in that instance, it could be now referred again with respect to Alexandria or any other place. Upon application by the existing corporation to the General Assembly of Virginia, any required alteration or emendation of its charter could be easily secured, in the present era of good feeling as regards higher education.

Perhaps a still better course than removal to Alexandria would be to move again upon Richmond. There would be little or no opposition now, when it is clearly seen that it is a question of life or death with the oldest college in the South. Loyalty to higher education, municipal interests, and the best social influences of Richmond and Virginia, to say nothing of the outside world, would be enlisted in behalf of this venerable and historic institution. If it should begin life anew with nothing but a hired house or one professor in a lawyer's office, it would command public sympathy and support. It would draw to itself the most vital of all currents—youth, immortal youth. Students invigorate a college, awaken professors, delight college presidents and boards of trustees, who, by this very student pressure, are emboldened to ask capitalists to stand and deliver. The pronounced success of Richmond



WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE AS REBUILT IN 1859.

Published through the courtesy of the Century Company.



WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE, 1887.

Published through the courtesy of the Century Company.

College, a flourishing Baptist institution, demonstrates the possibilities of this municipal environment for an institution of learning.

William and Mary College should have changed its base immediately after the civil war from Williamsburg to Richmond. It should have utilized the historic prestige of the capital of the Old and New South. In spite of all legal quibbles, the legislature could have as easily modified the geographical provision of the charter as the Board of Visitors changed the chancellorship from the Bishop of London to George Washington after the war of the American Revolution. Even now this change of base from Williamsburg to Richmond is a grand possibility of life for the old College of William and Mary. Against manifest fate, against isolation, poverty, and desertion, President Ewell and no man can struggle with success. But with the favoring current of history and politics, of public opinion and common sense, it is possible for even one individual to guide an institution, or an idea, to some worthy end.

Whatever may be the destiny of the College of William and Mary, her influence upon higher education in Virginia and throughout the South can never be lost.

"She cannot die! Amid the flame,
Which like a death-shroud binds her in its fold,
Her spirit walks serene in deathless fame,
Like to the martyred Israelites of old.
The fire but purifies the virgin gold,
Frees the rough ore, and burns away the rust.
Then, ere the burnished metal waxes cold,
With reverent hearts her children must
Renew her ancient impress, 'WISE AND TRUE AND JUST.'"¹

PRACTICAL LESSONS FROM THE HISTORY OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

It is impossible to study the past experience of institutions of learning without deriving useful lessons for the present. Among the ideas suggested by the history of William and Mary College are the following: (1) like Harvard College, it was originally a State institution, supported by government appropriations and by taxation, as well as by private

¹From the poem of St. George Tucker, read February 19, 1859, on the occasion of the 166th anniversary of the founding of William and Mary College, a few days after the conflagration which destroyed the college buildings. See *Southern Literary Messenger*, March, 1859, p. 238. This magazine contains three excellent articles on William and Mary College: (1) March, 1855, vol. 21, No. 3; (2) October, 1856, vol. 23, No. 4; (3) March, 1859, vol. 28, No. 3.

The College of William and Mary has been destroyed by fire, either wholly or in part, four different times: (1) in 1705; (2) in 1781, by the French; (3) in 1859, when it was restored within a year's time; (4) in 1862, substantially restored in 1869 by private aid. The damages wantonly caused by Union soldiers in our late civil war have never been settled by the United States, although the French Government, more than a century ago, set us a memorable example by immediate compensation for damages accidentally caused by their troops during the occupation of Williamsburg.

philanthropy; (2) like Harvard again, it was founded in the interest of the church and of liberal education; (3) it was early associated with the best political, religious, and social forces of Virginia in a municipal environment; (4) the college-capital flourished so long as Williamsburg remained the political and social centre of Virginia; (5) when the capital of the State was removed to Richmond, the life current of the college became feeble, for it ceased practically to be a State institution, and remained only a church institution in a decaying borough, whose vitality had fled; (6) the survival of its ecclesiastical character in a State where dissenting interests were in the majority, actually prevented the college from becoming the University of Virginia, according to the original plan of Jefferson; (7) non-sectarianism was the corner-stone of that rival State institution, which, founded in a rural environment on the outskirts of Charlottesville within sight of Monticello, speedily rose above old William and Mary College, prevented its removal to a better municipal vantage-ground in Richmond, and drew away its strength and prestige;¹ (8) persistent refusal to remove to a more healthful and favorable municipal environment, after the disasters of the civil war, when there was everything to gain and comparatively nothing to lose, was a mistake second only to the defeat of the first project for removal to Richmond in 1821; (9) the most practical of all lessons to be derived from the history of William and Mary is *the possible renaissance*, in the educational policy of our States, of the original Williamsburg idea of a college-capital, or at least of higher education, in a municipal rather than in a rural, or even suburban, environment; and (10) the revival of that close connection between education and good citizenship which made the College of William and Mary a seminary of statesmen. The last two ideas the writer proposes now to consider, more specifically with reference to the greatest educational need of our time—*the application of historical and political science to American politics*.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION IS DEMOCRATIC AND REPRESENTATIVE.

The proposition that this country stands in need of the practical application of the lessons of history and political science to the solution of great problems in administrative reform—municipal, State, and national, in tariff reform, in agrarian reform, in social reform, in labor reform, and in the repression of anarchy and crime, will hardly be denied by any thoughtful citizen. Reflection will also convince fair-minded

¹The attraction of the new university for Virginia youth, at an early period, is indicated by an article which the writer recently noted in the *New York Times*, circa December 20, 1886, on "A statesman of the past," the Hon. Alexander H. H. Stuart, of Staunton, Va., the trusted friend of Webster and Clay. Mr. Stuart is now about eighty years of age. In his day he has had as much influence upon Virginia politics as ever Tilden or Seward or Marcy enjoyed in the State of New York. In an interview with a visitor Mr. Stuart related the fact that, sixty years or more ago, he was a student at William and Mary College, but that he *graduated in the University of Virginia*. This one case shows how the educational tide was turning.

men that, in order to apply such lessons to politics, economics, and society, there must be proper avenues of influence, proceeding primarily from the people and leading through institutions of learning to the very issues in question. In a republic like ours, no reforms are possible which are not demanded by public opinion and common sense. When these great forces begin to move in society and in the state, something greater than a mouse is likely to come forth from the mountain.

It is certainly a reasonable and democratic idea that the highest educational privileges of a state should be brought within the reach of representatives of the common people. Thomas Jefferson was a farmer's son, trained in Virginia schools for the College of William and Mary, and by that institution for the governorship of Virginia, for the presidency of the United States, and for the founding of the University of Virginia, where the sons of that State were trained even better than were their sires. In the entire United States there is to-day no institution more democratic than the University of Virginia, either in its student representation or mode of government. The sons of Virginia farmers and planters are educated there without the payment of a dollar for tuition. The higher education is as free as air. The university receives all who are able to come, and allows them to stay as long as they can do so with profit to themselves; but the university reserves its honors for the men who can pass its examinations. Ability and character are the sole standards of promotion in the higher education, and that is precisely what this country needs in its public servants. The people endeavor by their votes to secure the best man for President, and sometimes they succeed. While all privileges and all offices are and ought to be accessible to the people, it is well understood that this is a representative government, and that there is some sense in preferring one man to another, else we should all raffle for the presidency and cast lots for the offices in his gift. In other words, fitness is the true principle in the choice of popular representatives for office or for honors in the higher education. It is true even in politics that many are called but few are chosen.

The representative principle is as valid in the higher education as it is in the higher walks of politics. While all the sons and daughters of the people should enjoy common school privileges, as all men enjoy the right of suffrage, it does not follow that all should receive a university education at the people's expense. One might as well expect that all voters should be sent to Congress. There must be in the higher education, as in politics, some principle of natural selection and a survival of the fittest.

The State universities of this country are open to the sons of the people in the freest, fairest way. Like the University of Virginia, the University of Michigan,¹ and the University of California, nearly all State

¹ *The Higher Education: A Plea for Making it Accessible to All.* By James B. Angell, president of the University of Michigan. Ann Arbor, 1879.

universities afford free tuition to students dwelling within the borders of their respective States who are able and willing to profit by the higher education. Some of the State universities, for example, that of North Carolina, pursue a more economical plan, and accord free tuition to *representative* students, appointed for merit from each county or election district. Until 1876, this was the method of the University of Virginia, the faculty of which annually selected for merit one student from each of the fifty senatorial districts in that State. These appointees alone enjoyed free tuition. The State University of Alabama still receives, free of charge, one student from each county. There is a manifest tendency, in some parts of the South, to return to this more economic and discriminating system, for the sake of increasing university revenues by money arising from tuition. In general, it might be said that this method is not only good economy, but good educational policy, for the higher education is always better appreciated when it is paid for, whether by money, merit, honorable service, or some *quid pro quo*. A university career should not be beyond the reach of the poor, but it should be an honor rather than a charity, a recognition of ability rather than of poverty.

THE MERIT SYSTEM IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF NEW YORK.

The most healthful, suggestive, and fully developed method of connecting university life with the people is that now in vogue in the pivotal State of American politics, the State of New York, where Cornell University, in return for the agricultural college land grant, affords free tuition to one student each year from each Assembly district, who is appointed for merit by the county commissioners of education. This method of appointment makes the higher education a prize and an honor, both to the successful student and to the high school or academy which trained him. It strengthens the secondary schools by the natural effect of competition, and it recruits the university from popular sources, which supply all vigorous currents in the life of a state. The university can, if it pleases, apply its own educational tests and send back deficient appointees for further preparation, or it can accept, at discretion, the certificates of local examiners. It has lately been recommended by the Cornell alumni that vacant or unimproved district scholarships shall be filled from districts where applications are in excess of the allowance, after the manner of appointment to State normal schools.¹

THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

The educational experience of the State of New York is a most valuable and suggestive guide for the regulation of schools, colleges, and universities within State limits. In New York a uniform standard of

¹ *Historical and Statistical Record of the University of the State of New York*, 1885, page 303.

excellence has been reached in the high schools and academies by a system of State examinations and by the award of teachers' certificates by State authority. A reasonable harmony of interests among the various colleges and universities has been reached by an annual convocation of their representatives, together with the principals of high schools and academies.

The educational control of the State of New York is in the hands of a board of twenty-three regents of the so-called "University of the State of New York." It is simply an examining board, consisting of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, superintendent of public instruction, and nineteen other members chosen by the State legislature in the same manner as State senators, and holding office during the pleasure of the legislature. While a regent must be a citizen of the State of New York, he cannot be a trustee or officer of any college, academy, or university under the control of the board of regents. Its officers are a chancellor, vice-chancellor, secretary and treasurer, and an assistant secretary, who hold their position during the pleasure of their associate regents. The business of the board is conducted principally by means of standing committees, of which there are ten, viz: on Incorporations; on the State Museum; on the State Library; on the Instruction of Common School Teachers; on the Distribution of the Literature Fund; on Appropriations for the Purchase of Books and Apparatus; on the Annual Report; on the Visitation of Colleges and Academies; on Academic Examinations; on Printing and Legislation; and on Degrees.

The present board of regents is the historical outgrowth of the original board of governors of King's (now Columbia) College. In 1784, the governors petitioned for "an extension of the privileges of the said college so as to render it the mother of an university." The practical organization of the board of regents dates from the year 1787, and it was largely the work of that master mind, Alexander Hamilton. This board of regents has chartered all important educational institutions in the State of New York; it has exercised for one hundred years a wise and beneficent control over not only the highest educational, but the highest scientific interests of the State; it has preserved and published the historical records; it has investigated the most intricate historical questions relating to the boundaries of the State; it has cared for the State library and State museum; it has encouraged meteorological observations in connection with local institutions of learning; it has published in its reports an amount of special literature of unexampled interest in the history of state education in this country. Without an examination into the facts of the case, one would hardly believe the extent to which New York has carried her system of state control over the higher, as well as over secondary and primary education within her limits. Her regents examine secondary schools throughout the State. They require annual reports from all the higher institutions of

learning. They not only give teachers' certificates, but, under approved conditions, they award academic degrees. Indeed it was at one time seriously proposed by the president of Cornell University, Andrew D. White, to put the power of conferring degrees entirely into the hands of the board of regents of the University of the State of New York.

THE MERIT SYSTEM AT THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

Throughout the entire country, from New York to the Gulf States, from Virginia to California, the principle of student representation or student election in our higher systems of education is already recognized to a greater or less degree. The idea has even passed beyond State limits, and is now in practical operation in at least *one group of three southern States*—Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. To undergraduate students from these three States the Johns Hopkins University, in Baltimore, gives twenty ordinary Hopkins scholarships, yielding free tuition (\$100) and tenable for three years. This university also gives eighteen honorary Hopkins scholarships, yielding \$250 per annum and free tuition, "to be awarded for *uncommon merit*, among the matriculated undergraduate students from each of the States above named, the selection to be made by the board of collegiate advisers."¹

The reason for discrimination in favor of meritorious undergraduate students from these three States is the expressed will of the founder of the Johns Hopkins University, who desired his trustees to "establish from time to time such number of free scholarships in the said university as may be judicious, and to distribute the said scholarships among such candidates from *the States of Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina*, as may be most deserving of choice, because of their character and intellectual promise, and to educate the young men so chosen free of charge." The founder's motive was not altogether unlike that which causes the University of Virginia to limit its free tuition to students from that State. To Johns Hopkins, the wholesale merchant, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina were simply a larger economic commonwealth, from which he had drawn his millions in the processes of trade and commercial intercourse. He wished to benefit that group of States which had benefited him. In no way could he have better quickened the highest life of that one group of American commonwealths than by thus providing for the higher education of their representative young men who were "most deserving of choice."

The merit system in the higher education has been extended by the Johns Hopkins University into the District of Columbia, where two undergraduate scholarships, yielding free tuition, are open to resident candidates. At the very outset the merit system, which is the life principle of the university, leaped the confines of the three States above named, and invited a wider competition and *more than national* student representation. From the very beginning of the university the twenty

¹ *The Johns Hopkins University Register*, 1885-'86, p. 66; cf. p. 70.

fellowships, yielding \$500 a year, with free tuition, have been open to graduates of any other institution in this country or in foreign lands, "for conspicuous merit." While very naturally the majority of the appointees are graduates of collegiate institutions in the United States, there are repeated instances of the award of fellowships to Canadians, Europeans, and Japanese. By the recent institution of twenty graduate scholarships, ten to Hopkins graduates and ten to graduates of other institutions now studying in Baltimore, each scholarship yielding \$200 a year, the merit system in university education has been still further extended and at the same time practically centralized in its operation.

A fair proportion of these various university honors has been given to graduate students in history and political science, upon evidence of good work and in competition with other departments. While the attainment of honors is not the main motive of graduate study in a specific department, the merit system undoubtedly and deservedly acts as a powerful incentive. The success achieved by senior fellows attracts and stimulates their juniors. The original number of graduate students (three) in history and politics has increased tenfold. The original number of undergraduate students (two) in the same subjects is now over one hundred. Aside from the original work produced and published in the four volumes of *Studies in Historical and Political Science*, and six independent volumes upon special subjects, the most conspicuous result of the merit system in historical and political education is the promotion of doctors of philosophy from this department to professorships or good positions in other colleges and universities. Of the six men who in June, 1886, were awarded the doctor's degree in history and political science, every one was almost immediately advanced to a still higher honor by some other institution, viz: By (1) the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; (2) the University of California; (3) Bryn Mawr College; (4) Swarthmore College; (5) Washington High School; (6) Imperial College of Sapporo, Japan. Altogether, in this department there have been graduated twelve doctors of philosophy, of whom nine have entered upon academic careers, one is an editor, and two have served in the Bureau of Labor Statistics at Washington, besides teaching boys. Altogether, the Johns Hopkins University has supplied 48 institutions with 82 instructors, who have won the doctor's degree.

A NATIONAL TENDENCY IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

Upon a map of the United States, recently issued by the Land Office, the writer has caused to be ticketed, and labelled with individual names, the various institutions of learning which have employed the services of graduate students from the Johns Hopkins University. The experiment was suggested by an account which the writer once saw in one of the published addresses of Andrew D. White,¹ ex-president of Cornell

¹ *Agricultural and Mechanical Education*. Address before the New York Agricultural Society, 1869, by Andrew D. White; reprinted in the Cornell University Register, 1871.

University—an account of a wall map in the French agricultural college at Guignon, which showed at a glance where all its graduates were stationed and how they were employed. The application of this novel idea to the graphical illustration of what the writer is inclined to call the colonial system of the Johns Hopkins University, shows to the eye that all along the Atlantic coast-line, from Bowdoin College in Maine to the Agricultural College of Florida, Baltimore instructors are as thick as sea-birds—thickest of all in the Middle States. From the Baltimore point of departure they stretch inland in two long lines, one bold and strong toward the Northwest, the other less conspicuous, but pushing into the great Southwest as surely as railway traffic. Three professorial names in California and three in Japan indicate that Baltimore influence in the higher education has passed beyond the limits of the Baltimore and Ohio Railway system, which is the economic background of the Johns Hopkins University.

One other fact is very noticeable upon this university map. The one place outside of Baltimore where Johns Hopkins men most do congregate is the *City of Washington*. These men are in governmental or educational service. Graphical statistics demonstrate the fact, which the writer has long been inclined to believe, that the greatest vantage ground of this Baltimore university is its proximity to the nation's capital. Baltimore, whether consciously or unconsciously, is reproducing the old Williamsburg ideal of a college “with the conveniences of a town,” upon a somewhat enlarged scale. As the old College of William and Mary faced the old capitol of Virginia, with the Duke of Gloucester Street between, so the new Baltimore university faces the new Capitol of the nation, only forty-five minutes distant on the Baltimore and Ohio express. One could not traverse so quickly in the horse cars the length of Pennsylvania Avenue, from the neighborhood of Georgetown College to the grounds of the Capitol.

From geographical and railway contiguity, the relations between Baltimore and Washington are drawing closer every year. More and more are Hopkins men employed in Washington; more and more does Washington send her students and the Government its specialists to Baltimore. Every year there is a better understanding of Washington and of its institutions on the part of university students, through the practical teachings of public men who are invited to Baltimore to address the Seminary of History and Politics. It is no small privilege for students to hear the subject of civil service reform expounded by a government commissioner, or current questions of American politics elucidated in familiar, friendly language by a Senator of the United States. These are simply accomplished facts. A national university, without any of the dangers and impediments arising from political control, stands midway between the North and the South, in the closest connection with the West, near enough to Washington to profit by its object lessons in politics and administration, by its libraries and

museums; and yet far enough away to escape that familiarity with political methods which sometimes breeds contempt or precocious imitation on the part of unripe youth.

THE PROMOTION OF HIGHER POLITICAL EDUCATION.

The time for a national university in Washington is either past or not yet come. Such an institution is not desirable in the present state of national politics and civic administration, nor is it needed by the country with its present supply of universities, already pervaded not only by a State spirit, but by a growing national, if not a truly cosmopolitan idea. What is needed, however, in all our States and in the nation's capital is *the promotion of the higher political education in practical ways.*

The representative or merit system in academic training should be made to connect not only, on the one hand, with the people, but, on the other, with practical politics and the civil service. Universities which recognize meritorious sons of the people or the principle of student election from legislative districts, should themselves be recognized by representatives of the people as at least one influential factor in shaping civil service examinations, and also as a proper source of supply whenever special scientific service is required. Such service has been frequently sought from the Johns Hopkins University by the city of Baltimore, by the State of Maryland, and by the United States Government; but the principle should be fostered throughout the whole country in connection with the State universities, and it should be extended to the improvement of the civil service, methods of taxation, schools, boards of education, State examinations, etc.

Universities should encourage their own graduates to enter the civil service examinations of the higher grades in their respective States. Practical experience in a government office for two or three years would afford the best kind of post-graduate course, especially if the State capitol and the State university should happen to be in the same city, so that further academic study might go hand in hand with practical work in an official bureau. Such an experience, as a subordinate under strict discipline, would prove a far better training for good and useful citizenship than does autocratic teaching in a country high school. The writer knows of several Baltimore students who have entered the Patent Office at Washington, one a Hopkins Ph. D., who received from the civil service board the highest mark on competitive examination. He is now pursuing law studies in connection with his government work, with a view to becoming a patent lawyer. If one can understand how such practical training will prove helpful professionally to this young man, it will be readily seen that similar experience in other branches of the public service may not be without a wholesome influence upon sensible students.

There are to-day scores of young men employed in government offices

in Washington, many of them college graduates, who are also pursuing law studies in evening classes in some one of the three flourishing law schools in that city, viz, (1) Columbian University (Baptist);¹ (2) Georgetown College (Roman Catholic); and (3) the so-called National University. Soon there will be a richly endowed Roman Catholic university in the nation's capital, and doubtless that institution will also take an important share in the legal or special training of some of the nation's public servants. Men of sound sense in government employ will seek such opportunities more and more, on the one hand as a means of preparing for higher professional work, and, on the other, in the hope of improving their chances for promotion or influence in the public service.

The Government is compelled to patronize institutions of learning from self-interest, for the reputation of its departments and its scientific bureaus, some of which are constantly turning to colleges and universities for special work. The War and Navy Departments have detailed no less than ten men for further scientific training or for the conduct of necessary government investigations at the Johns Hopkins University. Various members of the university staff have been employed upon special commissions in the interest of the Geological and Coast Surveys, Bureau of Education, etc. This comity between science and the Government ought not only to continue, but to be promoted, especially with reference to political science.

IDEA OF A CIVIL ACADEMY IN WASHINGTON.

While the national Government will continue to seek special service wherever it can best be found, and while its public servants will continue to seek special training wherever they prefer, it is not inexpedient to suggest that the Government might easily secure for the civil service what West Point and Annapolis have so long provided for the Army and Navy, viz, well-trained men for administrative positions requiring expert service. There is in these times as great need of special knowledge in civil science as in military or naval science. A civil academy for the training of representative American youth would be as great a boon to the American people as the Military and Naval Academies have already proved.

The West Point and Annapolis idea of educating representative young men from political districts is already abroad in nearly every State in the American Union. A combination of this idea with the

¹ The writer is informed by President James C. Welling, of the Columbian University, that of the 190 students in the law school of that institution about 40 per cent. are in government service; of the 100 medical students, 45 per cent.; of the 80 scientific students, 50 per cent. From Georgetown College and the "National University" the writer has not succeeded in obtaining returns, but in the opinion of good judges of the Washington situation, from 40 to 50 per cent. of the student class in these three professional schools are government employés. There is a decided demand for special education on the part of our existing civil service. The tendency should be encouraged in every legitimate way.

merit system in appointment is frequently made by Congressmen in the institution of a competitive examination to discover whom they shall appoint as cadets. The joint system has long been established in the State of New York, the centre of political gravity in these United States. The system should be taken up by the present administration, which sprang from New York and which represents the New York idea in administrative reform. The West Point plan of taking student appointees from congressional districts, and the Cornell University plan of student appointment for merit, should be transplanted together to the city of Washington. From each of the three hundred and twenty-five congressional districts there should be appointed by the respective Congressmen, upon competitive examination held by the State or leading university, or by some other impartial examining board, one student of the grade of bachelor of arts, to enjoy government tuition in Washington for two years at a civil academy, as hereafter described, with an allowance of \$600 a year for necessary expenses, as is now done for cadets at West Point and Annapolis. As at these two government academies, so in the Civil Academy, if properly constituted, undoubtedly a large proportion of the appointees would be "found deficient;" many would resign for professional reasons or from dissatisfaction with the civil service, but a choice remnant would surely be saved to the state; the fittest would survive. Even if all returned to their own homes after two years' public training, the cause of good citizenship would be greatly promoted.

These student appointees, or government "fellows,"¹ should not be required to herd in barracks or dormitories, but allowed to live like frugal citizens in Washington. They should not be under martial law or even scholastic discipline of the juvenile sort. They should be treated as responsible men under contract, as government employés, with special or assigned duties, under the general direction of an Educational Commission, appointed by the President for the specific purpose of managing the civil academy or government college, which would require no very elaborate or costly equipment. A few lecture rooms and a working library would suffice. The students should be instructed in physical, historical, and economic geography; in political, constitutional, and diplomatic history; in the modern languages; and in all branches of political science, including political economy, statistics, forestry, administration, international law, comparative methods of legislation, and comparative politics. Instruction should be given in class sections (as at West Point) and in public lectures by government experts and university specialists, who might be engaged from time to time from different institutions for such services. The best tal-

¹ For the fellowship and scholarship system in American colleges, see *Annual Report of Cornell University*, 1883, pp. 63-65. For a complete survey of the subject of fellowships in England, Scotland, Ireland, Canada, and the United States, see *Proceedings of the Royal Society of Canada*, Appendix for 1885, "Report on Fellowships."

ent of this country and of any other, whether university men or professional politicians, could be commanded for such occasional work.

In addition, the students should be distributed through the various government departments, at first in very subordinate and not too exacting positions, where they should be held accountable daily for a moderate amount of routine work or for certain practical tasks. Upon the daily record of such work and upon the results of occasional examinations, set by authority of the Educational Commission in specified fields, should depend the tenure of office as government students and the promotion to more advanced privileges of practical work, such as special investigations in the interest of branches of the administration. As a reward of merit, certain picked men might be detailed for special graduate work in different American universities or even in European universities, at the *École Libre* in Paris or possibly in the Statistical Bureau at Berlin, both of which institutions are practical training schools in the art of administration. Men thus educated would prove of great service to the Bureau of Labor or to the Bureau of Statistics. They would be capable of doing much of the special work now required in the taking or elaboration of the United States census. At present, special economic or statistical work is sometimes done by men selected upon political recommendation and not always thoroughly fitted for the task required.

That this idea is in the air of Washington and is not deemed impracticable by practical politicians, is seen in the recent remark of Mr. Trenholm, comptroller of the currency, who is reported to have said: "It is my intention to take young men from various parts of the country and give them a preliminary training in this office; fit them for bank examiners, and then appoint them. By this arrangement I think I will be able to have in these positions men who have excellent qualifications for their duties, and thus make a most efficient force of bank examiners. Besides, it will be the best kind of civil service reform."¹

The system might be applied also to the training of picked young men for the consular, diplomatic, and other branches of the public service which require special knowledge. European Governments foster their civil and diplomatic services by systematic training in connection with government offices and schools of administration. The practice is already beginning to evolve in connection with the State Department and the training of consular clerks.² It might easily be extended in connection with other departments and the various scientific bureaus.

¹ "The Civil Service Commission and the Heads of Bureaus." *Baltimore American*, January 16, 1887.

² The consular clerk system was inaugurated by act of Congress approved June 20, 1864 (see 15 Statutes at Large, page 139; Revised Statutes, sections 1704 and 1705). Consular clerks, not exceeding thirteen in number at any one time, are appointed by the President. They are assigned to such consulates as the President shall direct. At present they are assigned to the consulates at Havana, Paris, Rome, Kanagawa, Bordeaux, Turin, Liverpool, Berlin, London, Cairo, Chemnitz, and Honolulu. Before

The government commission for the civil service academy or government college should not be appointed in the interest of party, but of scientific politics and good administration. It should be as trustworthy as the three commissioners for the government of the District of Columbia, and it should work in perfect harmony with the administrative offices of the government.

The necessary elements for the beginning of a civil academy are for the most part already existing in the city of Washington, and only need to be properly co-ordinated. The practical appliances for a unique American experiment in the promotion of political education of the highest sort for the sons of American citizens are already at hand in the government offices and various scientific bureaus. Foundations for the institutional or scholastic side of the proposed civil academy also exist in Washington. It is perhaps not generally known that the Federal City already contains one of the very best systems of public education in these United States. The high school of Washington is already a virtual seminary of history and political science. These subjects form a special department of instruction, employing one teacher and three assistants. The entire faculty is so thoroughly specialized in the teaching of natural science, mathematics, languages, etc., that in almost any other city save Washington this high school would be called a college. The institution, like the entire school system of the Federal City, has been under the sovereign control of Congress, and is largely supported by government appropriations. It is high time that this excellent system of public education should be carried one step higher, *for Washington is not as other cities*. The existing high school should be developed into a free government college, supported by Congress, governed by the proposed commission, and supplying such further scholastic training in the arts and sciences as members of the existing civil service or future appointees to the civil academy might require. Upon these scholastic or purely academic foundations should be superimposed a system of lectures by government experts and university specialists, as already described.

Suggestive information respecting European methods of promoting political education for governmental purposes may be found in the report of the Paris Exposition of 1878. That portion of the commissioners' report relating to the subject of political education was written by

appointment it must be satisfactorily shown to the Secretary of State, after examination and report by an examining board, that the applicant is qualified for the duties to which he may be assigned. A consular clerk cannot be removed, except by cause stated in writing, which must be submitted to Congress at the session first following such removal. *Consular clerks hold office during good behavior. They usually receive instruction at the Department of State before going to their posts. The idea underlying this system is that of training young men for consular positions of the higher grade.* One consular clerk, not now in the service, was promoted to a consulship; many of them have been made vice consuls, and some of the present incumbents fill the vice-consular office in addition to the consular clerkship.

Hon. Andrew D. White, and contains a most instructive résumé of what has been done in this regard in every great modern state. A part of this report was given as a public address on "Education in Political Science" by President White before the Johns Hopkins University, on its third anniversary, February 22, 1879. The address was published in pamphlet form in Baltimore, but the original detailed report is more serviceable for the purpose here suggested.

Another interesting and valuable report is that on the "Training by Universities of the Public Servants of the State," published in the Proceedings of the Educational Conference¹ held in London in 1884. The *École Libre des Sciences Politiques*, to which reference is made in this report, is a model civil academy, devoted to the preparation of young men for the service of the French Republic. Instruction in the art of administration, in finance, diplomacy, public law, and history, is given by government officials, senators, retired ministers, professors, and men of the highest repute as practical economists and politicians. So excellent is the work of this French school that the University of Virginia and the School of Political Science, Columbia College, have sent thither graduate students for the study of administration and political science. Two graduates from the Johns Hopkins University are proposing to spend the coming year in the same civil academy. If this country fails to provide the proper means for teaching what is most needed in America, our young Americans will find means abroad, and, when they return, they will be likely to institute suggestive comparisons for the information of their countrymen. There is crying need of schools of administration in this country. Dorman B. Eaton, the recent head of the Civil Service Commission, said to the graduate students in Baltimore that he did not know of a single place in the whole country where men could study what the country wants to know about methods of administration. The case is not quite so grievous as that, for a beginning has already been made in this kind of work in Columbia College, in the University of Pennsylvania, in Baltimore, and perhaps elsewhere.

A third source of light and information is Doctor Engel's descriptive pamphlet on the Seminary of the Prussian Statistical Bureau, published in German, Berlin, 1864. This institution is a training school for university graduates of the highest ability in the art of administration, and in the conduct of statistical and other economic inquiries that are of interest and importance to the Government. The practical work is done in connection with government offices, among which advanced students are distributed with specific tasks. Systematic instruction is given by lectures, and by the seminary or laboratory method, under a general director. Government officials and university professors are engaged to give regular courses to these advanced students. It is considered one of the greatest student honors in Berlin for a university

¹ *International Conference on Education*, vol. iii, p. 191. London: William Clowes and Sons. 1884.

graduate to be admitted to the Statistical Seminary. It is easier for foreigners to secure this privilege than for Germans. One graduate of the Johns Hopkins University (a doctor of philosophy) has enjoyed instruction in that Prussian laboratory of political science. If one would see what good work comes forth from that Berlin civil academy, he should examine the catalogue of the periodicals and other publications which have been issued by the Statistical Bureau¹ and commission his Berlin bookseller to send him a few specimen monographs. Through this bureau the University of Berlin and the Prussian administration are brought into closest *rapprochement*. The work of taking the census of Prussian population and resources is intrusted to educated men, trained to scientific accuracy by long discipline and practical experience. The work of the Prussian census in 1875 was so well arranged that all the results were delivered at noon on the day promised, and the entire cost was kept within the original estimate.

CENTENARY OF THE INAUGURATION OF THE CONSTITUTION, 1889.

In December, 1886, there met in the city of Philadelphia delegates from the various States and Territories to devise plans for the celebration, September 17, 1887, of the centenary of the signing of our present national Constitution. Among the measures proposed and agreed upon by the conference was "the creation of a suitable memorial in the city of Philadelphia commemorative of the signing and adoption of the Constitution."²

On January 10, 1887, a select committee of the Senate reported the following resolutions, which were considered by unanimous consent and agreed to :

Resolved, That it is expedient that order be taken by Congress for the due celebration at the city of Washington, on or about the 30th of April, 1889, of the centennial of the inauguration of the Constitution of the United States.

Resolved, further, That the Select Committee on the Centennial of the Constitution and the Discovery of America be directed to consider and propose *the best mode of* carrying out the foregoing resolution.³

Undoubtedly the idea of a permanent memorial of the Constitution in the city of Washington will find its way into Congress through the influence of the Select Committee on the Centennial. Whatever shape the celebration may take, there will naturally be a desire to establish some centennial landmark. The times are therefore ripe for suggestion.

¹ For a more detailed account of the Prussian Statistical Seminary see the *Johns Hopkins University Studies*, vol. ii, 79-81. For the catalogue of the publications of the Statistical Bureau, address Verlag des Königlichen Statistischen Bureaus, Berlin, S. W., Lindenstrasse, 28.

² *Proceedings of the Constitutional Centennial Commission*, held December 2-3, 1886, at Philadelphia, p. 17.

³ *Congressional Record*, January 11, 1887, p. 510.

It will be remembered by every student of American constitutional history that, when the original convention of State delegates met in the city of Philadelphia in 1787, various plans were suggested for the reformation of that defective system of government under which the United States had suffered since the first institution of the Articles of Confederation in 1777. Among the plans was one suggested by Governor Randolph, representing the Virginia delegation of seven men. He proposed, in a series of resolutions, the great idea "that a national government ought to be established, consisting of a supreme legislative, executive, and judiciary." The Virginia proposition, in the process of debate, evolved into the present Constitution of the United States. Randolph's resolutions were known as the "Virginia plan."

There could hardly be a more appropriate mode of creating a perpetual memorial of our Federal Constitution than by nationalizing at Washington and everywhere promoting throughout the individual States that system of education in good citizenship which made the Virginia plan a possibility, which trained up such public men as George Washington, Edmund Randolph, John Blair, George Mason, Professor George Wythe, Professor James McClurg, and James Madison, the seven members of the Virginia delegation, of whom at least six were in some way, as alumnus, professor, or overseer, connected with the old College of William and Mary, that school of Jefferson and of American statesmen. A permanent memorial of our Federal Constitution should *revive and perpetuate the higher education in history and politics*, which was well represented by the Fathers of the Republic, notably by James Madison¹ and George Washington in their historical study of federal government, from the time of the Grecian leagues down to the Swiss Cantons, the United Netherlands, and the old German Confederation. Equally remarkable evidence of the fact that our Constitution was founded and maintained by the aid of political science and of historical politics is seen in the *Federalist* and in John Adams's *Defence of the Constitution*. If we would commemorate the patriotic work of the framers of our Constitution, we should *promote in every possible way throughout this country and at the nation's capital that political wisdom upon which the Union was established*.

¹ Madison's *Notes on Ancient and Modern Confederacies, preparatory to the Federal Convention of 1787* (see his Writings, i, 293-315), afford very conclusive evidence as to the historical and political studies which were cultivated by the authors of the "Virginia plan." Washington copied out Madison's Notes in the most painstaking manner for his own practical guidance (see the Writings of Washington, edited by Jared Sparks, vol. ix, pp. 521-528). Mr. Sparks says in a foot note, "I can give no other account of the manuscript, than that it exists among his papers. It could hardly have been drawn up originally by him, as several works are cited which were written in languages that he did not understand." Comparison shows that the original work was Madison's. James Madison was a graduate of Princeton, but he became one of the visitors of William and Mary.

Institutions of learning are, after all, nobler monuments to great men and great events than are obelisks or statues of marble. The national endowment or permanent support of the higher political education "within the limits of the District of Columbia, under the auspices of the General Government," would realize the highest ideal of the Father of his country. This ideal was Washington's last will and testament to the American people.

SCIENTIA PRO PATRIA!

Johns Hopkins University,
March 4, 1887.

APPENDIX.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE HISTORY OF WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

NOTE.—The writer is indebted for the use of documents, catalogues, and pamphlets introductory to his subject to the valuable collections already made by the Bureau of Education. Nowhere in this country can the history of American schools, colleges, or universities, be so well studied as in the city of Washington. The materials and bibliographies there accessible are of surprising extent and value, when one considers the slender resources and inadequate appropriations with which the Bureau has done its useful work. Institutions of learning should take pains, each for itself, to supply this national repository of educational archives with as perfect a collection of documentary materials and as full a bibliography as can be prepared. Something has already been done in many instances, but in others even the catalogue files are very defective. In the centennial year, at the request of the Bureau, manuscript or printed accounts of the history of many colleges and universities were forwarded to Washington, and are now preserved in the educational library. This valuable collection should be properly supplemented, revised, and ultimately arranged for publication, after the manner of that excellent compilation on Public Libraries in the United States, published by the Bureau of Education in 1876.

In order that the bibliographical results of his own special study of the College of William and Mary may not be lost, the writer appends the titles of works which he has found of service.

Hening's Statutes of Virginia. 1809-20.

This early historical collection of Virginia laws from 1619 to 1792 is one of the most important sources of the educational history of Virginia.

Palmer's Calendar of Virginia State Papers, 1875-85.

Doctor Palmer's able and excellent work of compilation (from 1652) has been done since the War, and has now reached its fifth volume. This series suggested the publication of the Maryland archives by the Maryland Historical Society, at the expense of the State. Both series are invaluable to the students of southern institutions.

The Acts of the Assembly and the various Codes of Virginia.

In the indexes, under the heads of Education, Schools, Colleges, Williamsburg, William and Mary College, University, very many important facts may be found respecting the history of the higher education in Virginia.

The Official Letters of Alexander Spotswood, Lieutenant-Governor of the Colony of Virginia, 1710-1722. 2 vols. Richmond, 1882-85.

These letters, carefully edited and annotated by Mr. R. A. Brock, the accomplished secretary and librarian of the Virginia Historical Society, are at once most interesting evidence as to the devotion of the early Virginians to their college, and as to the present renaissance of historical studies in the New South. Governor Spotswood's activity in the interest of William and Mary College reminds one of Jefferson's services to the University of Virginia.

The Official Records of Robert Dinwiddie, Lieutenant-Governor of the Colony of Virginia, 1751-1758. 2 vols. Richmond, 1883-84.

Another illustration of Mr. Brock's excellent editorial work (see index under Williamsburg, and William and Mary College), and also of the present activity of the Virginia Historical Society in publication. These original and unique records were purchased in London in 1881, at auction, upon order by telegraph from that public-spirited American citizen, W. W. Corcoran, Esq., of Washington, D. C., and were by him presented to the Virginia Historical Society.

Hugh Jones. *The Present State of Virginia*. Sabin's Reprints, 1865 (original edition, 1724).

This writer was a professor in the college in Governor Spotswood's time, and has given us altogether the best picture of Williamsburg in those days. He was also chaplain in the House of Burgesses and assistant in the Bruton parish church, which antedated the college and the capitol by more than a quarter of a century.

Beverly's *History of the Present State of Virginia* (to 1706).

An historian contemporary with the founders of William and Mary College.

Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society, vol. v. *An Account of the Present State and Government of Virginia*, section xii, "Concerning the College of William and Mary."

This is an original source of information, from a Virginia manuscript presented nearly a century ago to the Massachusetts Historical Society by Carter B. Harrison, Esq., of Prince George County. The author was contemporary with the foundation of the college.

Stith's *History of Virginia*. 1747.

William Stith's history of the Virginia Company was published in Williamsburg in 1747. The historian became president of the college.

Keith's *History of Virginia*. 1738.

Burk's *History of Virginia*. 1804-16.

Both of the above accounts of the college are drawn chiefly from Beverly.

Neill's *Virginia Company* (1869), *Virginia Vetusta* (1885), and *Virginia Carolorum* (1886).

These volumes, prepared by the Rev. E. D. Neill, are invaluable for documentary evidence as to the beginnings of education in colonial Virginia. See *Education, College, and Schools*, in index.

Jefferson's *Notes on Virginia*, and, in general, *Jefferson's Writings*. 1801.

These are the most important of all sources for the transitional period from colonial to State history, and from the college to the university. Upon the latter subject, the most original and authoritative work is the *Early History of the University of Virginia* as contained in the *Letters of Thomas Jefferson and Joseph C. Cabell*, Richmond, 1856.

Sparks. *Life and Writings of Washington*. 1858.

See index under William and Mary College, National University, etc.

Pickell. *History of the Potomac Company*. 1856.

For the relation of Washington's economic enterprise to the cause of higher education, compare *Johns Hopkins University Studies*, vol. iii, 93-95.

The Officers, Statutes, and Charter of the College of William and Mary. Philadelphia, 1817.

This document, together with various editions of the laws and regulations, is preserved in the library of the Bureau of Education.

Catalogues of the College of William and Mary.

Many of these are also to be found in the educational library at Washington. They are particularly valuable sources of information, because of the historical matter published in the introductions.

The History of the College of William and Mary, including the General Catalogue, from its Foundation to 1874.

This document, published in Baltimore and Richmond for the sake of reviving public interest in the college, is by far the most valuable historical account of the institution. It was this work which first interested the present writer in William and Mary, and it has afforded him more suggestive aid than any other one work. It contains the most important original documents relating to the college, the charter, deed of transfer, etc.; and an historical sketch from materials prepared by the late Professor Robert Morrison, who represented the department of history and political economy in *ante bellum* days. The writer takes this occasion to acknowledge, in the most grateful way, his special indebtedness to Professor Morrison for his pioneer service in investigating the history of William and Mary College. If every professor of history would take as much interest in the origin and development of the college or university which he represents, the records of the higher education in the United States would be much better known than they are at present.

Foote's Sketches of Virginia, Historical and Biographical. Philadelphia, 1850.

This is a valuable collection of materials for the educational history of Virginia. The work is written from a Presbyterian point of view, but it is very just to William and Mary College, which represents the Episcopal Church. Foote's Sketches contain interesting information respecting the "log colleges" and the introduction of Princeton ideas into Virginia and the Carolinas. A North Carolina graduate student, from Wake Forest College, now at the Johns Hopkins University, is upon this trail. Foote traces the rise of Liberty Hall Academy, now Washington and Lee University, and also the history of its ancient rival, Hampden-Sidney College, in Prince Edward County. One must understand the influence of these Presbyterian institutions of learning in Virginia in order to realize why William and Mary College failed to become what the University of Virginia now is. A non-sectarian institution was absolutely necessary to balance these rival forces.

Howe's Historical Collections of Virginia. 1852.

Bishop Meade's Old Churches, Ministers, and Families of Virginia. 2 vols. 1857.

This standard work on the ecclesiastical and social history of Virginia contains interesting notices of Williamsburg and its college. The first volume contains a fair engraving of the old college building.

Anderson's History of the Church of England in the Colonies. 1856.

A work of educational as well as of historical significance. This history of Episcopacy in America gave New England scholars the first clue to the existence of William Bradford's manuscript History of Plymouth Plantation in the library of the Bishop of London, at Fulham on the Thames.

William Stevens Perry. Papers relating to the History of the Church in Virginia, 1650-1776. 1870.

The Bishop of Iowa has done great service to historical science by collecting and editing original documents. Many of them are of great interest and importance to the College of William and Mary. The character and writings of Commissary Blair, the first college president in Virginia, are well illustrated. There is a picture of the college in vol. i, p. 123.

History of the American Episcopal Church. 1885.

A monumental work in two large volumes, based upon the author's earlier researches in American church history and upon the new method of co-operation in historical writing. The College of William and Mary is well described.

De Bow. Industrial Resources of the Southern and Western States, vol. iii, "Virginia." New Orleans, 1852-55.

De Bow's writings are the foundation of the economic history of the South, and he does not neglect the cause of education, which is one of the essential factors of every state's economy.

The Southern Literary Messenger.

A file of this magazine is a veritable treasure-house of historical and sociological materials relating to the Old South. There are to be found in this file three different articles upon the subject of William and Mary College: (1) March, 1855, vol. 21, No. 3; (2) October, 1856, vol. 23, No. 4; (3) March, 1859, vol. 28, No. 3. The latter article was published just after the fire which destroyed the college building in February, 1859.

Howison's History of Virginia. 1846.

Campbell's History of Virginia. 1860.

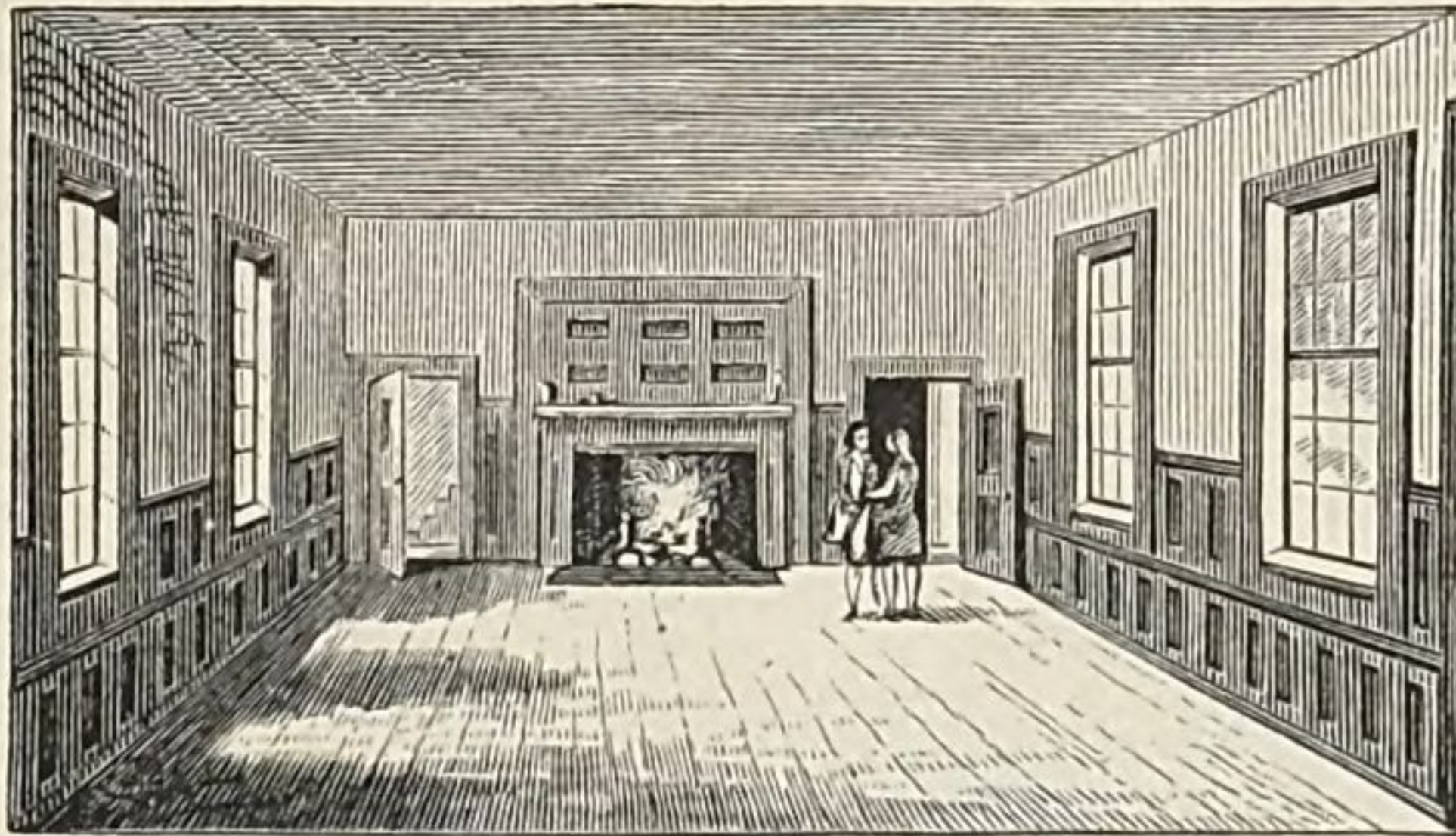
A popular work containing interesting notices of the College of William and Mary. There are various other well known histories of Virginia which contain some account of the college, but all are drawn from sources already mentioned.

The Orderly Book of that part of the American Army stationed at or near Williamsburg, Va., under the command of Gen. Andrew Lewis, from March 18, 1776, to August 28, 1776, with Notes and Introduction by Charles Campbell, Esq. Richmond, privately printed. 1860.

This neat little volume, of one hundred pages, the first of a proposed series of "Historical Documents from the Old Dominion" begun just before the outbreak of the civil war, contains, in the introduction, some interesting topographical details respecting the city and neighborhood of Williamsburg. The book is a curious historic link between the outbreak of the revolutionary war and of the civil war.

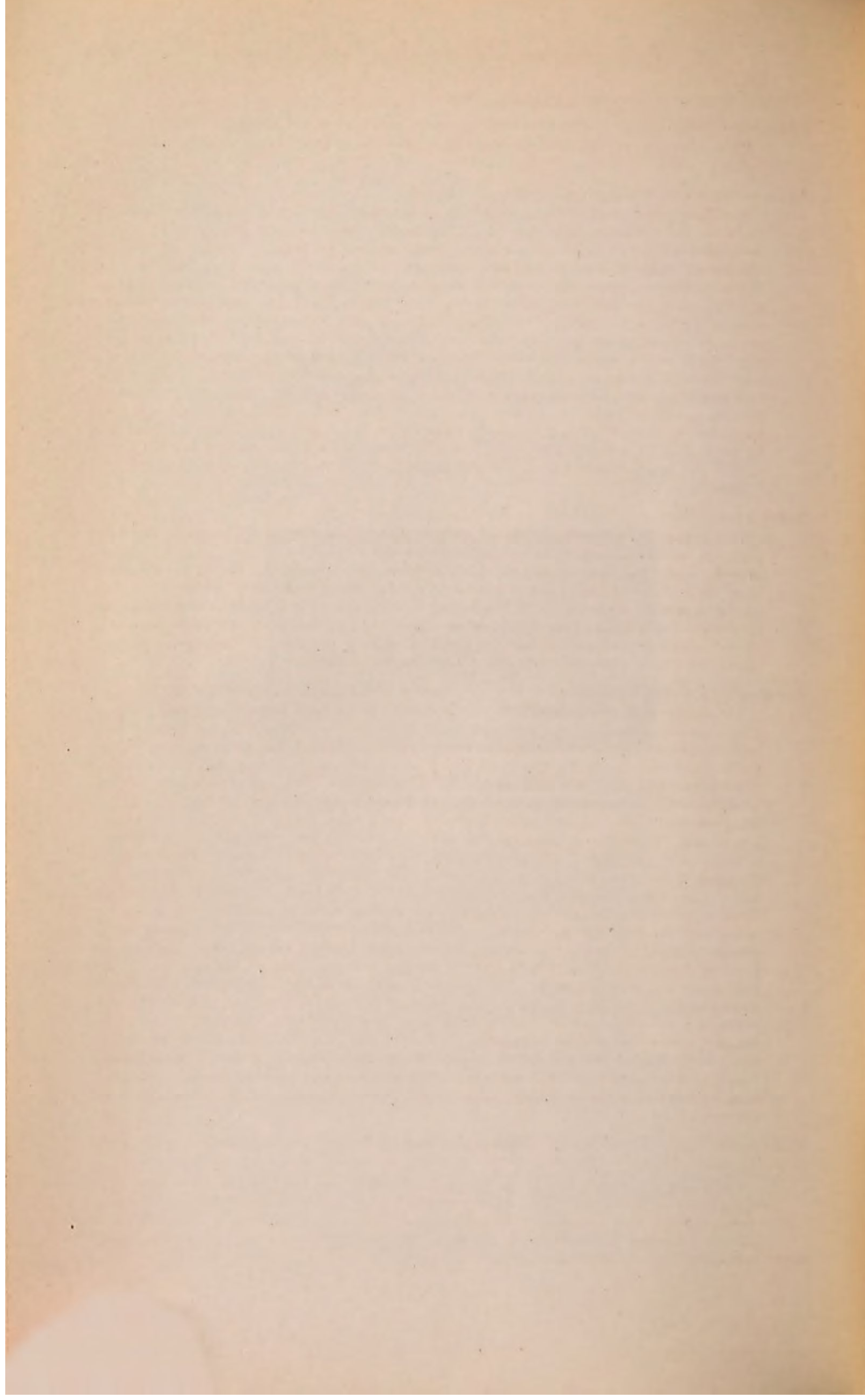
Henry Cabot Lodge. Short History of the English Colonies in America. 1881.

This work contains an account of the social and educational condition of Virginia before the outbreak of the Revolution.



“APOLLO ROOM,” OLD RALEIGH TAVERN.

Published through the courtesy of the Century Company.



Doyle. English Colonies in America. 1882.

Eben Greenough Scott. The Development of Constitutional Liberty. 1882.

Scott gives a somewhat more favorable picture of the state of Virginia society than either Lodge or Doyle.

John Esten Cooke's Virginia. 1883.

This introductory volume in the American Commonwealth Series is the most recent history of the State, and describes in a graphic manner its historic seat of learning. Mr. Cooke, whose recent death is deplored by all who knew him, wrote an excellent magazine article upon William and Mary College, for *Scribner's Monthly*, November, 1875, where it enjoyed the leading place. It was an illustrated article, and from it have been taken, by the courtesy of the Century Company, the plates in the present monograph. Besides those already shown, there are various others of historical interest, for example, the old Raleigh Tavern, with its famous "Apollo Room," where the court balls and social assemblies of colonial Virginia were held; where Jefferson and his college friends used to dance; and where the Virginia House of Burgesses reassembled after it had been dissolved by Earl Dunmore. There, as in the tennis court at Versailles, a popular revolution was inaugurated. The old capitol at Williamsburg is also pictured. There, in 1765, occurred that famous debate on the Stamp Act, when Patrick Henry said, "If this be treason, make the most of it!" The old capitol, "the heart of rebellion" in those revolutionary days, was destroyed by fire in 1832, but a chance drawing of it by a Williamsburg lady is reproduced in Mr. Cooke's article. In fact, the reading of his pictorial sketch is almost as profitable as an actual visit to Williamsburg.

John Austin Stevens. Centennial Handbook. New York, 1881.

This is the most convenient guide for the historical pilgrim visiting Williamsburg and other points of interest in that region between the York and James Rivers, doubly famous as a seat of war. There the Continental army and the French allies forced the British to capitulate; there the American Revolution was successfully ended; there the forces of a divided Republic long struggled for the mastery. Williamsburg, both in the American Revolution and in the late civil war, was a strategic base of military operations, the very key to the Yorktown peninsula. Whoever unlocks that old Williamsburg portal, whether in the study of war or peace, politics, society, church, or education, unlocks the whole history of Virginia.

Lossing's Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution (1851), vol. ii, pp. 262-265, 278.

The modern student who returns to this good friend of his youth to see what is said about old Virginia and Williamsburg will feel as grateful as he does to "Porte-Crayon" for his Virginia Illustrated. The man who drove fourteen hundred miles in a wagon, visiting revolutionary scenes, north and south, can give "points" to aspiring excursionists of the new school. Here are some of his notes: "I arrived at Williamsburg at noon [December 20, 1848], and proceeded immediately to search out the interesting localities of that ancient and earliest incorporated town in Virginia. They are chiefly upon the main street, a broad avenue pleasantly shaded, and almost as quiet as a rural lane. I first took a hasty stroll upon the spacious green in front of William and Mary College, the oldest literary institution in America except Harvard University. The entrance to the green is flanked by stately live oaks, cheering the visitor in winter with their evergreen foliage. In the centre of the green stands the mutilated statue of Lord Botetourt, the best beloved of the colonial governors. This statue was erected on the old capital in 1774, and in 1797 it was removed to its present position. I did not make a sketch of it, because a student at the college promised to hand me one made by his own pencil before I left the place. He neglected to do so"! Speaking of the Apollo Room in the rear building of the old Raleigh Tavern, Lossing says: "Up to the day of my arrival it had remained unaltered. Carpenters were then at work remodelling its style, for the purpose of making it a ball-room. * * * Had my visit been deferred a day longer, the style of the room could never have been portrayed. * * * The sound of the hammer and saw engaged in the work of change seemed to me like actual desecration; for the Raleigh Tavern and the Apollo Room are to Virginia, relatively, what Faneuil Hall is to Massachusetts." If the modern student would see how the room appeared to Mr. Lossing, let him look in the Field-Book, vol. ii, p. 278. The accompanying sketch is taken from Mr. Cooke's article.

Edwin D. Mead. Remarks on William and Mary College. Boston Christian Register, September 23, 1886.

"It is a pity," he says, "when one considers the educational needs of the South, that something should not be done to perpetuate this old college, second only to Harvard in age and historical interest, both in memory of its great past and in the active service of the present. *Such great traditions as those of William and Mary College are themselves of the highest utility in education and ought not to be wasted.*"

Ben: Perley Poore's Descriptive Catalogue of the Public Documents of the United States. 1885.

See index under William and Mary College for all the government material concerning the institution. This excellent catalogue is an Ariadne thread through that vast labyrinth of our United States public documents, and it has enabled the writer to find the following state papers relating to his subject:

Senate Document No. 72, 28th Congress, 2d Session, vol. iii, January 29, 1845.

A report on claims for revolutionary losses.

Senate Reports, No. 219, 31st Congress, 2d Session, vol. i, December 12, 1850.

Adverse to claims for revolutionary losses.

House Reports, No. 65, 41st Congress, 3d Session, vol. i, March 3, 1871.

Recommending appropriation of \$65,000 for the college.

House Reports, No. 9, 42d Congress, 2d Session, vol. i, January 29, 1872.

This contains the favorable report of the Committee on Education and Labor, recommending a bill to reimburse the College of William and Mary for property destroyed during the civil war, by "disorderly soldiers of the United States." The sum of sixty-four thousand dollars was proposed for reimbursement.

House Miscellaneous Documents, No. 247, 43d Congress, 1st Session, vol. iii, April 13, 1874.

Urging Congress to make an appropriation for William and Mary College.

House Reports, No. 203, 44th Congress, 1st Session, vol. i, March 3, 1876.

This contains Senator Hoar's historical tribute to the College of William and Mary.

House Reports, No. 12, 45th Congress, 2d Session, vol. i, December 5, 1877.

Favorable to relief for loss of property during the late war.

Andrew Ten Brook. American State Universities: Their Origin and Progress. A History of Congressional University Land Grants. A particular Account of the Rise and Development of the University of Michigan, and Hints toward the Future of the American University System. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1875.

This valuable work, the pioneer in the systematic historical treatment of American universities, contains an excellent although rapid sketch of the higher education in Virginia.

The College Book, edited by Charles F. Richardson and Henry A. Clark. Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.

Another pioneer work, admirably supplementing that of Professor Ten Brook, for it relates chiefly to the older and more independent college foundations. William and Mary College follows Harvard University. The Virginia institution is well described by the editors, and remarkably well illustrated by the heliotype process.

Remarks of Benjamin S. Ewell, President of the College of William and Mary, before the Committee of Education and Labor of the House of Representatives, January 24, 1872.

Report and Address of President Ewell, at the convocation in Richmond, April 18, 1879.

Letter from President Ewell to H. B. Adams, concerning the present situation and prospects of the College of William and Mary.

The following interesting communication is absolutely the most recent and authoritative information from Williamsburg, Va. President Ewell represents the college in the most unique manner. He might say with perfect truth, *Le collège, c'est moi!*

LETTER FROM PRESIDENT EWELL.

"COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

"(Founded 1693.)

"Session begins second Wednesday in October,
and ends the 4th of July following.

"Williamsburg, Va., January 19, 1887.

"PROFESSOR HERBERT B. ADAMS:

"*Dear Sir:*—Do not suppose that my delay in replying to your letter of the 14th ultimo has arisen from any failure on my part to gratefully appreciate the proof it gave of your interest in this old college. The manifestations of similar interest by gentlemen

prominent in their several walks of life all over the country assure me now, as they have done since 1865, that existing difficulties will in time be overcome, and that this institution will take another lease of educational life. That President Gilman shares in the possession of this interest I know from a limited correspondence I have had with him.

"There are no students here now, and I am the only person belonging to the college faculty at the present time. The college was forced to incur a building debt after 1865, and its endowment, greatly diminished by the accidents of war, was not sufficient to pay this debt and support a faculty. After repeated attempts to do both, it became evident that the vitality of the college required a temporary closing, and the annual proceeds of its endowment to be applied to the payment of its pecuniary obligations. As the faculty is the corporation, its chartered and corporate title being 'The President and Masters or Professors of the College of William and Mary in Virginia,' it was necessary to preserve the form of the faculty, with the minimum of substance. Under this policy the debts have been reduced from \$28,000 to about \$7,000. When this indebtedness is satisfied it is estimated that the college will have its buildings and contents, worth some \$80,000, and an endowment of \$40,000, more or less, yielding an income of \$2,500. With this as a nucleus, free from all incumbrance, it may happen that some of the liberal northern men will complete its endowment. * * *

"A year or two ago a wealthy Bostonian died, and in his will was a legacy to the college of \$400,000. To this will there had been a codicil annexed, transferring the gift to the University of Virginia. The college wishes the death of no one, but may not, in time, a wealthy benefactor insert a similar provision in his will and, unfortunately, 'join the great majority' before he annexes such a mischievous codicil?

"The above pretty well answers your questions—most of them I should say, for there is one relating to the college bell not yet attended to. There is an ancient tradition connected with the college to the effect that a full session of students followed the ringing of its bell¹ on the 1st of October at sunrise. The session began early in October. The transformation of this tradition into a daily ringing by me exceeds the story of the 'Three black crows.' But, to compensate, it has given me a wide reputation as a 'bell-ringer,' equal or superior to that of the celebrated 'Swiss bell-ringers.' So I laugh at the story without murmuring or contradicting. I send you a catalogue of the college (general), and inclose one or two extracts from newspapers.

"Most respectfully, yours,

"BENJ. S. EWELL."

¹ Regarding the bell-ringing at the opening of each academic year, the writer has been assured, on independent testimony from Williamsburg, that the old custom is still kept up. And here is collateral evidence from a northern man, Mr. Edwin D. Mead, of Boston, who visited William and Mary College in the spring of 1886: "The old, gray-haired president, as each October comes round, goes to the college and has the old college bell rung, as a formality to still retain the charter." The writer may remark, *en passant*, that the charter does not require this annual duty; but tradition and the general consensus of Virginians compel us to believe in the *propriety* of the custom! The writer's friend, Mr. Mead, says that he talked with President Ewell there in Williamsburg "in these last May days," and that the good president "believes that the bell will yet be heard." In a letter which Mr. Mead received from President Ewell, the latter said: "I believe some northern man will immortalize himself by re-endowing William and Mary College, and that it will be again as useful as it has been in the past." Mr. Mead quoted this in a lecture in the Old South Church in Boston, and put the question: "Who is the northern man that will hear this prophecy and fulfill it?"

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 2, 1887

THE
STUDY OF HISTORY

IN

AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

BY

HERBERT B. ADAMS, Ph. D.

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1887

"I have a belief that one of the best ways to master a vast subject is to take one part of it and learn to understand it intelligently in its obvious bearings, and then another part, and then still another ; and if we shall then put these known parts side by side in our minds and compare them together, their resemblances and their differences, their accidents and their essentials, we may come to discover the underlying principle which gives unity to the whole subject."—WILLIAM PRESTON JOHNSTON, President Tulane University, New Orleans. Address on "Education in Louisiana," National Educational Convention, Topeka, Kans., July 15, 1886.

"The best investment which can be made of the people's money is in the endowment of institutions of learning. They yield a heavy return, if intelligent loyalty and patriotism and purity in public life have any value."—HON. ISAAC H. MAYNARD, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. Address, Amherst College, June 29, 1887.

*"I would urge upon the Government of the United States, and upon the Government of the States, the necessity of providing by law for the admission of students that have taken scientific courses in statistics as honorary attachés of, or clerks to be employed in, the practical work of statistical offices. * * * The statistician writes history. He writes it in the most concrete form in which history can be written, for he shows on tablets all that makes up the Commonwealth."*—CARROLL D. WRIGHT, Commissioner of the U. S. Bureau of Labor. Address to the American Historical and American Economic Associations, in joint session at Harvard University, May 24, 1887.

"Nor must we omit to mention, among the benefits of education, the incalculable advantage of training up able counsellors to administer the affairs of our country in all its departments, legislative, executive, and judicial, and to bear their proper share in the councils of our national government; nothing more than education advancing the prosperity, the power, and the happiness of a nation."—THOMAS JEFFERSON. Report to the Legislature on the site of the University of Virginia, 1818.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Letter of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior.....	9

CHAPTER I.—HISTORY AT HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

The Scholastic System of early Harvard.....	11
First Tabular View of Harvard College.....	13
Survival of History for two Centuries.....	15
First Professorship of History at Harvard, 1839.....	17
First Electives at Harvard.....	18
First Requirements in History and Geography.....	19
Introduction of American History by Professor Sparks.....	20
Professor Sparks' Lectures.....	20
Survival of the Tutorial System.....	22
Professor Francis Bowen.....	23
Professor Henry W. Torrey.....	26
Examination in Modern History, Seventeenth Century and First Half of the Eighteenth.....	30
Examination in Modern History, from the Middle of the Eighteenth Century..	31
Professor Felton and Greek History.....	31
Professor Gurney and Roman History.....	33
Examination in Roman History.....	34
Examination in Roman and early Mediæval History.....	35
Professor Henry Adams.....	35
Examination in Mediæval History.....	36
Examination in Institutions.....	38
Examination in English History.....	39
Examination in American Colonial History.....	39
Present Status of History at Harvard.....	40
The Historical Method in Economics.....	42
Library Facilities at Harvard.....	43
The Harvard Historical Society.....	47
The Narrative and Critical History of America.....	47

CHAPTER II.—HISTORY AT YALE UNIVERSITY.

Scholastic Beginnings.....	50
Classical History.....	52
History of Roman Law.....	53
Political Geography.....	53
General History.....	54
Political Science.....	55
History Continued.....	55
Ecclesiastical History.....	56
Professor Arthur M. Wheeler.....	56
Professor Franklin B. Dexter.....	57

CHAPTER III.—HISTORY AT COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

	Page.
Professor John Vardill, 1775.....	59
Professor Charles Anthon.....	60
Professor John McVickar.....	61
Advice of Professor Anthon.....	65
The Call of Francis Lieber.....	66
Alliance of History and Political Science.....	66
Lieber's Antecedents.....	67
Lieber's Method of Teaching.....	69
President Barnard's Report, 1865.....	70
Lieber in the Columbia College Law School.....	72
Professor John W. Burgess.....	72
Influence of Professor Burgess at Amherst College.....	73
School of Political Science.....	75
Tabular Views of Three Years' Course.....	79
Library of History and Political Science.....	82
Doctors' Theses at Columbia College.....	84
Academy of Political Science.....	85
The Political Science Quarterly.....	86

CHAPTER IV.—HISTORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Organization of the University.....	88
Prussian Ideas of Education in Michigan.....	89
Beginnings of Historical Instruction.....	91
Non-sectarian Appointments of Professors.....	94
Professor Andrew Dickson White.....	94
Professor White's Organization of the Historical Department.....	98
Professor Charles Kendall Adams.....	100
Tabular View of Hours in History, 1873-1874.....	102
Development of the Historical Department.....	103
The Seminary Method.....	104
Topics in English and American Constitutional History.....	106
First Original Work in History at Michigan.....	110
Specialization of Undergraduate Work.....	111
Growth of the University System at Ann Arbor.....	112
Foundation of the School of Political Science.....	114
Opening of the School of Political Science.....	115
Course of Instruction and Progress of the School.....	117
The Political Science Association.....	118
Beginnings of the University Library.....	119
Movement towards the New Library.....	120
The New Library Building.....	121

CHAPTER V.—HISTORY AT CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

The Agricultural College Land Grant.....	125
Ezra Cornell.....	126
The Cornell Endowment Fund.....	128
Plan of University Instruction.....	130
Cornell University Ideas.....	131
History in the Plan of Organization.....	132
College of History and Political Science.....	133
President White's General Course.....	135
President White's Special Courses.....	138

	Page.
Examination Paper in French History	141
Examination Paper in Modern History	142
Prize Examination in History	142
Associate Professor Russel	143
Examination in Ancient History	144
Examinations in Roman History	145
Examination in Mediæval History	146
Professor William D. Wilson	147
Questions in the Philosophy of History	147
History through Languages	147
German History in German	148
Goldwin Smith's Course in English History	148
James Anthony Froude at Cornell	151
Chair of American History	152
Professor Greene's Examination in American History	153
Professor Moses Coit Tyler	154
Success of Women in the Study of History	155
Professor Tyler's Courses and Methods	155
Present Status of American History at Cornell	157
Professor Tyler's Suggestions	158
A Visit to Professor Tyler's Seminary	158
General Development of History and Politics since 1881	159
President Charles Kendall Adams	161
Professor Herbert Tuttle	161
A Visit to President Adams' Seminary	162
Addition of Social Science to History and Politics	163
Museum of Art and Archæology	163
Library Facilities in History at Cornell University	164
President White's Historical Library	166
Relation of the Library to the University	167

CHAPTER VI.—HISTORY AT THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

I.—GRADUATE DEPARTMENT.

The Historical Seminary in Baltimore	171
Judge Cooley's Seminary	173
A New Departure	173
Seminary Life	178
The Seminary Library	179
Bluntschli and Lieber Manuscripts	180
The Pamphlet Collection	181
Pamphlet Groups	182
The Newspaper Bureau	184
List of Journals	186
The Historical Museum	189
The Geographical Bureau	191
The Statistical Bureau	193
Historical and Political Science Association	193
Contributions to the Association, 1877-1879	195
Johns Hopkins University Studies	197
Extra Volumes of Studies	199

II.—UNDERGRADUATE DEPARTMENT.

Student Lectures	200
Prehistoric Times	200
Church History	201

	Page.
The Italian Renaissance	202
The German Reformation	202
French and English History	202
International Law and Politics	203

III.—POLITICAL ECONOMY (UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE WORK).

History of Political Economy	204
Political Economy	209

CHAPTER VII.—HISTORY IN COLLEGES FOR WOMEN.

Vassar College	210
Wellesley College	212
Smith College	217
Bryn Mawr College	224

CHAPTER VIII.—AMERICAN HISTORY IN SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, AND UNIVERSITIES.

Revival of Historical Studies	230
Defects of Historical Instruction in our Schools	230
Suggestions for Improvement	233
Historical Requirements for Entrance to College	234
American History at Yale University	235
University of Wisconsin	236
Columbia College	236
Cornell University	237
Johns Hopkins University	238
University of Michigan	240
Rutgers College	241
Syracuse University	241
University of Pennsylvania	241
Harvard University	245
General Status of American History in our Colleges	252
American History an Insufficient Basis	255
Conclusions	255
Tabular View of Hours	256

CHAPTER IX.—HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE IN THE WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOL.

Course of Study in History and Economics	259
Methods of Teaching	259
Course in Historical Biography	260
Greek and Roman History	261
A Class Library	262
English History	262
Facilities for Historical Study in Washington	264
An Historical Environment in School	264
Washington the Centre of Political Education	264

CHAPTER X.—CARROLL D. WRIGHT ON POLITICAL EDUCATION.

STATISTICAL TABLES	268
--------------------------	-----

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page
Columbia College Library—Main Reading Rooms	84
Columbia College Library—History and Political Science, Librarian's desk....	84
General Reading Room, University of Michigan	122
Historical Seminary, University of Michigan	122
Lecture and Seminary Room of American History, Cornell University	158
General Historical Seminary of Cornell University	162
General Library of Cornell University	170
Interior of the Peabody Library, Baltimore	174
Historical Seminary of Johns Hopkins University, looking east.....	178
Historical Seminary of Johns Hopkins University, looking west	178
Ground Plan of the Historical Seminary	178
Vassar College Library, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.....	212
Wellesley College Library, Wellesley, Mass	214
Smith College Library, Northampton, Mass.....	224
Bryn Mawr College Library, Bryn Mawr, Pa.....	228
University of Pennsylvania—Lecture and Seminary Room No. 1, Wharton School.....	244
University of Pennsylvania—Lecture and Seminary Room No. 2, Wharton School.....	244

LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., April 18, 1887.

The Honorable THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C.:

SIR: The accompanying monograph, prepared at the request of the Bureau of Education by Dr. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University, relates to the methods of studying history in American colleges and universities. The subject is treated from an historical point of view, and is a substantial contribution to the history of the higher education in the United States. Doctor Adams' sketch of William and Mary College, Circular of Information No. 1, 1887, with its practical suggestions for reviving political education throughout our country, was preliminary to this larger report, which is designed to promote the study of history as a basis for political science.

In December, 1885, a circular letter was issued from this Office inquiring into the present condition of historical studies, not only in colleges and universities, but also in high schools, normal schools, institutes, academies, etc. The returns, while extensive, were on the whole unsatisfactory. In a few instances there were encouraging signs of good work in both higher and secondary training, but the general results indicated a serious absence of proper historical instruction in all grades of American education. By my advice the tabulation of statistical returns was restricted to institutes of the college and university grade. The question of secondary education in history demands special treatment and a study of the best methods now in use in the German gymnasia, the French lycées, and the English public schools.

From the unsatisfactory nature of the great mass of statistical returns, Doctor Adams was driven to another method of treating his subject—to a descriptive statement of the best experience of a few representative institutions in different parts of the country, based upon an original and independent study of documents, official reports, and catalogues. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and Cornell were selected to represent the best Eastern and Northern experience in the teaching of history; the University of Michigan worthily stands for the great West; while the young Johns Hopkins University represents the historical spirit of the New South. At this latter institution studies are in preparation upon Jefferson and the University of Virginia, and the History of Higher Education in North and South Carolina and Georgia.

The best colleges for women have been included in the present monograph, namely, Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, and Bryn Mawr.

Many other institutions are brought into rapid review by means of the statistical tables appended to this report, and representing returns actually made to this Office. Other colleges are mentioned in a special inquiry into the subject of American History in our Schools and Colleges, contributed to this report, at the request of Doctor Adams, by Dr. Francis N. Thorpe, Fellow of the University of Pennsylvania. An account of the Study of History and Political Science in the Washington High School, by Dr. E. R. L. Gould, formerly Fellow of Johns Hopkins University, concludes the report. Doctor Gould's account shows what can be done for the development of secondary education in history and economics, and what actually has been done in the Federal capital under the auspices of the Government.

In this monograph, prepared by Doctor Adams, theoretical and ideal views of historical training have been carefully avoided. The writer has deliberately confined his attention to select chapters of actual American experience, and to things done or attempted by particular institutions and individuals, whose work he has studied from authentic records. He has thus opened up a new line of inquiry, namely, the history of academic departments.

History is simply the record of human experience, whether in physics, politics, economics, ethics, or education. History has been called philosophy teaching by example, or, as teachers say, by object-lessons. Doctor Adams has applied the historical method to the discovery of the most approved methods of teaching history and of organizing historical departments in our American schools and colleges.

One of the most suggestive and noticeable features of his work is the attempt to illustrate by photo-engravings and diagrams the actual environment or library surroundings of certain schools of history and politics. In these modern days the college or university library has been brought into close *rapprochement* with department work by means of an ingenious system of seminary or class libraries in the very room where students meet. This suggested the introduction of the laboratory method for the study of history and other moral sciences. The growing value of historical and political studies, and the importance of promoting them throughout the country, as a means of strengthening good government and good citizenship, I need not emphasize.

I beg leave to recommend the publication and illustration of this report on "The Study of History in American Colleges and Universities" as a most valuable contribution to the history of higher education in the United States.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner.

Approved.

H. L. MULDROW,
Acting Secretary.

HISTORY IN AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY AT HARVARD UNIVERSITY.¹

The growth of historical studies at Harvard College is a subject of special educational interest, for it illustrates a process of academic development which is now in progress throughout the country at large. This process marks the rise of modern studies, as distinguished, on the one hand, from classic humanism, our inheritance from the Renaissance, and, on the other, from theological training, our inheritance from the Middle Ages.

The study of history at Harvard College began in connection with natural science, as one of the two most insignificant features of that scholastic and theological system which Harvard College was founded to perpetuate. The recognized branches of education, including philosophy, language, mathematics, history, and natural science, were all tributary to the interests of the established church of New England and to the training of the Puritan clergy. With the emancipation of the classics from the dominion of theology, history was set free from one mistress only to become the willing handmaiden of another. Once a slave to teaching Jewish antiquities, history, in the second stage of its existence at Harvard, became the medium of teaching Greek and Roman antiquities in a curriculum where classical studies, or humanism, ultimately proved the dominating power. For nearly two centuries history held a dependent position at Harvard College. Not until the year 1839 was this subject placed upon its own footing and allowed to advance along modern lines. The history of the rise of historical studies in Cambridge to their present eminence is worthy of close examination.

THE SCHOLASTIC SYSTEM OF EARLY HARVARD.

The earliest account of the course of study pursued at Harvard College, which was founded in 1636, is in a tract called "New England's First Fruits," originally published in 1643, reprinted in parts by the

¹ The writer first treated the subject of historical work at Harvard in the Johns Hopkins University Studies, vol. ii, pp. 87-94. Portions of the present chapter appeared in the magazine called *Education* for May and June, 1886, but they have been revised and extended so as to represent the present status of history at Harvard.

Massachusetts Historical Society in the first volume of its Collections, and in full by Joseph Sabin, in 1865. The tract consists of two parts, the first relating to the progress of missionary work among the Indians, and the second to the progress of education in New England, with special reference to Harvard College. The curriculum of study is described in a scholastic way, which, at first reading, is almost as confusing to a modern student as the modern elective system would be to a Puritan divine. In order to make the scholastic scheme more easily intelligible, it has been reduced from a descriptive to a graphical form, which, by historical courtesy, may be called the first "Tabular View" of Harvard College.

Among the points worthy of attention in this curriculum are: (1.) The course of study was for three years, and was arranged for the so-called First, Second, and Third Classes. The First *Classis* was of third-year men. (2.) The attention of each class was concentrated for an entire day upon one or two studies, with "theory" in the forenoon and "practice" in the afternoon. (3.) Monday and Tuesday were devoted to philosophy, including logic and physics for the first year, ethics and politics for the second year, with arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy for the third year. All this work was done in morning hours. In the afternoon came philosophical disputations for each class in his own field of study ("every one in his art"). (4.) Wednesday was Greek day for all classes. First-year men studied etymology and syntax in the forenoon and practiced the rules of grammar in the afternoon; the Second Class studied prosody and dialects from 9 to 10 a. m., and practiced "in Poesy" after dinner; third-year men did likewise in the theory and practice of Greek composition, prose and verse. (5.) Thursday was devoted to the "Eastern tongues," with the theory of Hebrew, Chaldee, and Syriac grammar in the morning, and practice in corresponding Biblical texts in the afternoon. (6.) Friday was given up to rhetoric. All students were taught the principles of rhetoric, and all were required to practice English composition, and once a month to declaim. (7.) Saturday, at 8 o'clock in the morning, all the students were taught "Divinity Catechetically," and, at 9 o'clock, "Common Places." These latter were common topics of scholastic discussion and digests of doctrine, argument, or opinion.¹

¹In the Cyclopædia of the Sciences, published at Lyons, 1649, all branches of knowledge are treated under the head of *Loci Communes*, in special chapters, with such titles as *Loci Ethici*, *Loci Oeconomici*, *Loci Politici*, *Loci Theologici*, *Loci Jurisprudentiæ*, etc., etc. Lord Bacon, in the fifth book (cap. 5) of his "Advancement of Learning," says: "There can hardly be anything more useful even for the old and popular sciences than a sound help for the memory; that is, a good and learned digest of Common Places. I am aware, indeed, that the transferring of the things we read and learn into commonplace books is thought by some to be detrimental to learning * * *"; but, says Bacon, "I hold diligence and labour in the entry of common places to be a matter of great use and support in studying." Thus we see the connection between the mediæval idea of a well-ordered digest of knowledge, and the modern commonplace book or note-book.

THE FIRST "TABULAR VIEW" OF HARVARD COLLEGE, 1642-'43. BY H. B. ADAMS.

[“The times and order of their Studies unlessse experience shall shew cause to alter.”]

Days of the Week.	8th Houre.	9th Houre.	10th Houre.	1st Houre.	2nd Houre.	3rd Houre.	4th Houre.
	First Yeare.	Second Yeare.	Third Yeare.		First Yeare.	Second Yeare.	Third Yeare.
2nd Day.	Logick first three quarters. Physicks last quarter.	Ethicks and Politicks at convenient distances of time.	Arith. & Geom. three first quarters. Astronomy the last.		Disputes	Disputes.	Disputes.
3rd Day.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.		ditto.	ditto.	ditto.
4th Day.	Greeke, Etymologie and Syntax.	Greeke. Prosodia and Dialects.	Greeke. The 3rd yeare perfect their theory before noon.		Greeke. Practice the precepts of Grammar.	Greeke. Practice in Poesy, Nonnus, Duport, or the like.	Greeke: Exercise style, Composition, Imitation both in prose and verse.
5th Day.	Hebrew Grammar.	Chaldee.	Syriack.		Practice in the Bible.	Ezra and Daniel.	Trestius' New Testament.
GENERAL EXERCISES FOR ALL CLASSES.							
6th Day.	Rhetorick to all at the 8th houre.	Declamations. Every schollar once a monthe.	The rest of the day <i>vacat</i> * <i>Rhetorice studii</i> .				
7th Day.	Divinity Catechetical to all.	Common Places to all.	History in the winter. The Nature of Plants in the summer.	* <i>Vacat</i> is here used in the sense of <i>is reserved for</i> rhetorical studies.			

(8) The last and least place in this otherwise excellent curriculum was given to history and nature. At 1 o'clock Saturday afternoon, immediately after the 12-o'clock dinner, and at the fag end of the week, the students were taught history in the winter and the nature of plants in the summer. *Historia civilis* and *Historia naturalis* were close companions in all early academic courses, and they have remained associated in some American colleges down to very recent times. At Harvard history and botany were probably consorted upon scholastic grounds; but it is interesting to note that the summer season was assigned to botany, thus implying botanical practice as well as theory. (9) The absence of Latin from the entire plan of study is noticeable, and is explained by the fact that students were required to speak Latin in the class-room and in the college yard. Latin was the main requirement for admission to Harvard College. The rule was: "When a schollar is able to understand Tully [Cicero] or such like classicall Latine author extempore, and make and speake true Latine in verse and prose *suo ut aiunt Marte*, and decline perfectly the paradigm's [*sic*] of nounes and verbes in the Greek tongue: Let him then and not before be capable of admission into the colledge." Such classical preparation was given to boys by the ministers in and about Cambridge, who were well-educated Englishmen and talked Latin with their pupils. There was also by the college "a faire Grammar Schoole, for the training up of young schollars, and fitting of them for academical learning." (10) The relative importance of the various branches of academic discipline, as indicated in this original curriculum of Harvard College, appears to have been as follows: First, philosophy (logic and physics, two hours; ethics and politics, two hours; disputations, six hours); altogether, ten hours a week. Greek came second, occupying, with New Testament Greek, seven hours. Rhetoric (the writing and speaking of the mother-tongue) enjoyed the third place of honor, employing six hours. Oriental languages held the fourth place, occupying five hours a week. Mathematics stood next in order, with two hours. The catechism and common-places were equally favored with an allowance of one hour. History and botany were put on half allowance, each with one hour a week for a half-year. (11) Altogether in the scholastic week at Harvard College, in 1642-'43, there were thirty-three hours of theory and practice, averaging eleven hours a week to each class. (12) Saturday afternoon was a half-holiday, except that the first hour of it was improved by the college, possibly with the hope that, after an introduction to history in winter and to the nature of plants in summer, students would further improve these fields of study during the remainder of the afternoon.

The following rules with reference to examinations and the bestowal of degrees in early Harvard are not without interest:

"The summe of every lecture shall be examined, before the new lecture be read."

"Every schollar, that on prooffe is found able to read the originals of the Old and New Testament into the Latine tongue, and to resolve them logically; withall being of godly life and conversation; and at any publick act hath the approbation of the Overseers and Master of the Colledge, is fit to be dignified with his first degree."

"Every schollar that giveth up in writing a System, or Synopsis, or summe of Logick, naturall and morall Philosopy, Arithmetick, Geometry, and Astronomy: And is ready to defend his Thesis or positions: Withall skilled in the Originalls as abovesaid: And of Godly life and conversation: And so approved by the Overseers and Master of the Colledge, at any publique act, is fit to be dignified with his 2d degree."

These are the ancient and scholastic foundations of Harvard College. Ability to translate passages of the Bible from the Greek, Hebrew, and Aramaic into Latin, and to expound Biblical texts, were the main requisites for the Bachelor's degree. A scholastic digest of logic, ethics, physics, mathematics, etc., with ability to defend theses, super-added to the above Biblical training and approved piety, secured to the candidate the degree of Master of Arts. It is easy to scoff at such scholastic and theological training, but it certainly made well-trained men, good in their art, as are the Jesuit Fathers of to-day, whose education is conducted after these ancient scholastic methods. Latin, Greek, logic, philosophy, and mathematics are good foundations which can never be shaken. All our modern studies—history, politics, modern languages—are building, whether consciously or unconsciously, upon classical humanism, superimposed upon a mediæval system of discipline. While rejoicing in the modern superstructure of the temple of learning, we should never ignore its historical ground-plan.

SURVIVAL OF HISTORY FOR TWO CENTURIES.

There is no reason for believing that the standing of history in the curriculum of Harvard College was very much improved for two centuries after these scholastic foundations. Josiah Quincy, in his "History of Harvard College" (I, 191), says: "The principles of education established under the authority of Mr. Dunster" (the first president ¹

¹ In 250 years there have been twenty-two presidents of Harvard, an average length of service of eleven years. President Edward Holyoke was longest time in office, thirty-two years; Cornelius Conway Felton, the shortest, two years. The first graduate of Harvard who was president was Leonard Hoar, 1672-1675, at which time the office was regarded as a "bed of thorns;" one writer saying, "That academic sceptre has more of solitude than charms, more anxiety than profit, more trouble than remuneration." Increase Mather was the first native American who became president. The first president, Mr. Henry Dunster, 1642-1654, was probably thirty years of age at the time of his appointment, but nothing definite as to his age is known. With that exception, President Eliot is the youngest person ever elected to the presidency. The following table gives a complete list of the presidents:

Name.	Age when elected.	Term of service.	Age at death.	Name.	Age when elected.	Term of service.	Age at death.
Henry Dunster	30	1640-'54	49	Samuel Langdon	54	1774-'80	74
Charles Chauncy	62	1654-'72	81	Joseph Willard	43	1781-1804	64
Leonard Hoar	42	1672-'75	45	Samuel Webber	47	1806-'10	51
Urian Oakes	44	1675-'81	49	John Thornton Kirkland .	40	1810-'28	70
John Rogers	52	1682-'84	54	Josiah Quincy	57	1829-'45	84
Increase Mather	46	1685-1701	84	Edward Everett	52	1846-'49	61
Samuel Willard	62	1701-'07	68	Jared Sparks	60	1849-'53	77
John Leverett	45	1708-'24	62	James Walker	59	1854-'60	80
Benjamin Wadsworth . . .	56	1725-'37	68	Cornelius Conway Felton .	53	1860-'62	55
Edward Holyoke	45	1737-'69	79	Thomas Hill	44	1862-'68	
Samuel Locke	54	1770-'73	72	Charles William Eliot . . .	35	1869-	

of the college, 1640-'54), were not "materially changed during the whole of the seventeenth century." As far as history is concerned, President Quincy might have safely added the entire eighteenth century with equal truth. Upon those venerable broadsides, which served as catalogues for the Faculty and students of Harvard College until the year 1819, there is to be found no curriculum of study, but in the year 1820, in the "Course of Instruction for Undergraduates," this condition of things emerges from the depths of nearly two centuries. In the forenoon of Saturday the Freshmen practice declamation and recite history and Adam's "Roman Antiquities" through the year. At the same time, the Sophomores are reciting from Tytler's "General History, Ancient and Modern," followed by declamations and English compositions. The advance from an after-dinner's exercise in history during the winter, and botany during the summer, for all classes, to forenoon recitations, one hour a week by Freshmen in classic history, and by Sophomores in general history, is not great but noteworthy.

There is plainly a case of survival in this Saturday's exercise, in this continuance of history for one hour on the last day of the week, in connection with ill-favored antiquities, hated themes, and tiresome oratory,—modern substitutes for "Divinity Catechetical" and other "Common Places." For nearly two centuries before 1820, and for many years afterward, the custom of a Saturday's exercise in history, whether ancient, modern, or universal (as a matter of fact, chiefly *classical*), was religiously kept up at Harvard College, doubtless to the grief of students in all generations. Like the catechism, history was a theological inheritance, a portion of the original scholastic endowment, and it was even more faithfully maintained. Dr. Peabody recently assured the writer that history at Harvard was always taught on Saturday morning by the Freshman tutor. In 1832 the doctor himself was "tutor to Freshmen," as appears by the catalogue for that year. In addition to his duties as regular tutor in mathematics and special instructor in *Hebrew*, he taught Tytler's "General History, Ancient and Modern," to Freshmen one hour a week, at eight o'clock Saturday morning, through the year, and covered the subject.

Another interesting scholastic survival, more direct perhaps in point of method than the teaching of history by text-books, is the course of historical *lectures* advertised for Seniors in the third term of the year 1820 by the "Professor of Ecclesiastical History." The latter branch was not as yet a distinct department in the Divinity School, but it was a recognized part of theological discipline, and was given not only to theologues, but to Seniors in their academic course. The catalogue for 1820 says that "students attending lectures are to be frequently and regularly examined by the professors on the subjects treated." This old scholastic method, the same now in our best institutions of learning as it was in Harvard in 1820, is plainly the survival of that good old custom described in "New England's First Fruits" (1643), which quotes the

Harvard rule of that time, when nearly all instruction was by lectures: "The summe of every lecture shall be examined before the new lecture be read." It is interesting to note that the ancient custom is still observed at Harvard College, although not in German universities (except in private quiz-classes). At Harvard, the old-fashioned theological course on ecclesiastical history, still open to the academic department, has become, in the hands of Professor Emerton, pupil of the late Professor Droysen, of Berlin, the medium of teaching the most modern views of mediæval history and of the relations of church and state.

THE FIRST PROFESSORSHIP OF HISTORY AT HARVARD, 1839.

It was not until the year 1839 that the first professorship in history was instituted at Harvard College. It was the first distinct endowment of that special branch in any American college, and it led the way to the recognition of history as worthy of an independent chair in all our better institutions of learning. The first incumbent of the McLean Professorship of Ancient and Modern History was Jared Sparks, A. M., who was at that time living in Cambridge and engaged upon pioneer work in the field of American history. He had finished the "Life of Washington" in 1837, and was already well known for his zeal and success in furthering historical study. In 1832 he had given the annual oration before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Harvard College upon "The Study of American History." Copious extracts from this discourse were published in the "Boston Book" in 1837, and in "The American Museum" in 1839. At the time of his appointment to the McLean Professorship, Jared Sparks was probably regarded as the best representative of history in America. It is interesting and important to remember that, in the calling of Jared Sparks to the McLean Professorship, there was a decided recognition of the importance of the special idea which he represented, the idea of American history. Although Cornell University was the first institution in America to establish a special chair for this branch of historical instruction, the most important to Americans, Harvard College was the first to bring American history into decided prominence by the encouragement of original lectures upon this subject by Professor Sparks.

The development of the historical department of Harvard College from classical foundations to an American superstructure by Professor Sparks is worth studying with some care. First, let us note that the new professor did not attempt to disturb the groundwork already laid by generations of tutors in classical history. Such text-books as Adam's "Roman Antiquities" continued in use. Books even more specifically classical than Tytler's "General History" were introduced; for example, Keightley's Histories of Greece and Rome, with occasional variations in favor of Heeren's "Politics of Ancient Greece" and Schmitz's "History of Rome." The foundations of the historical department were left substantially as they were laid upon classical bed-rock. The service of

Professor Sparks to Harvard College consisted in strengthening work already begun and in further upbuilding the same toward specialization. He erected modern history upon ancient foundations, and made America "the roof and crown of things."

The first steps in the upbuilding process may be briefly indicated as follows: The improvement and specialization of text-books, begun in the Freshman class, was extended to the Sophomores. Tytler's "General History" and Mueller's "Universal History" were soon replaced by such works as Sismondi's "Fall of the Roman Empire" and Guizot's "History of Civilization in Europe." In 1840 the Junior class, for the first time, began to receive historical instruction. Lectures were given on modern history by Professor Sparks, who that year brought out a Cambridge edition of Smyth's "Lectures on Modern History to the Close of the American Revolution" (the work really extends from 476 A. D. to the year 1791). These lecture-notes by Smyth, with additions and a list of books on American history by Professor Sparks, went through three American editions at Cambridge within the space of eleven years. The book remained the *Vade Mecum* of the Junior class throughout Jared Sparks' entire professorship of ten years. It probably did more than any other one authority for the propaganda of modern history in America. It was the literary bridge by which the first American professor of history connected the political life of the Old World with that of the New. In 1841, history, already a prescribed course for Sophomores, was offered as a joint elective to Sophomores and Juniors, the work offered being Hallam's "Constitutional History of England." This was the first appearance of English history as a special course at Harvard College, and it antedates the first special course in American history by one year.

FIRST ELECTIVES AT HARVARD.

Electives at Harvard were not the original product of the historical department, although the latter has done as much as any other to further them during the past twenty years. President Eliot, in his annual report for 1883-'84, has traced the development of the elective system from the year 1824, when "Juniors could choose a substitute for thirty-eight lessons in Hebrew, and Seniors had a choice between chemistry and fluxions" (page 7). The system of electives is entirely a modern growth in this country, and it has been determined by modern studies. "Election began early, but the modern languages were almost the only materials with which to effect substitutions" (page 7). The credit of initiating and supporting the voluntary principle in the choice of studies at Harvard was chiefly due, in the early days of the elective system, to Professors Ticknor and Longfellow. In the college catalogue for 1841-'42, history and natural history are, indeed, the only courses specifically mentioned as "elective courses,"—a fact which at first made the observer wonder whether that first pair of elective affinities, history and

botany, after remaining unfruitful for nearly two hundred years, were now to become the first parents of an elective system ; but it soon became clear, from an original plan published in President Eliot's report (page 13), that these "historical" electives were only fruits of a general system introduced in 1841, "by far the broadest plan which had been enacted up to that time." It also became clear that, whatever his professional course, "President Sparks was a decided opponent of the elective system. He came into office in February, 1849, and within a year attacked the system energetically through both the corporation and the faculty" (President Eliot's report, 1883-'84, page 17).

FIRST REQUIREMENTS IN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

To Professor Sparks' régime belongs the institution of historical requirements for admission to the Freshman class. In the year 1846 occurs the first mention of a matriculation examination by the historical department. The subjects required were Worcester's "Elements of Ancient History" and Worcester's "Ancient Geography." Hitherto for many years Worcester's "Ancient and Modern Geography" had been part of the requirements of the mathematical department, but, in 1846, the subject of geography was intrusted to the historical department, in which keeping it has since remained. It is interesting to observe that after 1846 historical atlases are frequently required in connection with Freshman and Sophomore historical courses. Butler's "Ancient Atlas" was the standard for Freshmen in their classical history ; while the Sophomores employed Worcester's "Historical Atlas" in connection with their Sismondi, Guizot, or Robertson's "Introduction" to his "Life of Charles V," which were the favorite text-books for that class, as Smyth's "Lectures on Modern History" was the approved manual for Juniors during the Sparks régime. Since his time the study of geography has been more and more emphasized in connection with the historical courses at Harvard. Looking over the printed examination papers for admission to the college, and at the conclusion of class courses in history, the observer will not fail to notice the evident stress laid upon map-drawing, physical and political, and the ingenious questions for determining and combining historical and geographical knowledge. Since the year 1846, ancient history and geography have continued to be the chief requirements of the historical department for admission to the college. Within the last twenty-five years these classical requirements have occasionally been increased by chapters from Freeman's "General Sketch of European History"; but, in general, the subjects prescribed by the historical department for the entrance examination have remained as they were originally proposed, ancient history and geography, although more advanced text-books are now recommended. In 1886 the history of England and of the United States was proposed as a possible substitute for Greek and Roman history.

INTRODUCTION OF AMERICAN HISTORY BY PROFESSOR SPARKS.

The first appearance of American history in the curriculum of Harvard College, and the first indication that this subject was recognized as a specialty by any American institution of learning, was in the year 1842, when Jared Sparks, already three years installed in his professorial chair, began to lecture to Seniors on American history. Into this special field of instruction he put henceforth his best energies. Having taken good care to strengthen existing foundations by the proper tutoring of Freshmen in Heeren's "Politics of Ancient Greece" and Keightley's "Rome"; of Sophomores, in Sismondi and Guizot; of Juniors, in Smyth and Hallam, authors who lay chief stress on English history, Professor Sparks now proceeded to teach his own American specialty, chosen while yet a Unitarian clergyman in Baltimore and a chaplain of Congress some twenty years before. The influence of his then proximity to the city of Washington, and of acquaintance with public men like Chief Justice Marshall, Justice Story, John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay, and Judge Bushrod Washington (owner of the Mt. Vernon Papers), in determining the life-work of Jared Sparks, is sufficiently well known; but the application of this impulse towards American history to Senior classes at Harvard college has not received the recognition it deserves. His work was the very first beginning of academic instruction in the history of this country. It was the dawn of independent historical scholarship in an institution where text-books and Old-World authorities had hitherto reigned supreme. It was another Declaration of American Independence, of which there have been and will be many assertions—ecclesiastical, political, economical, intellectual, and social. That the impulse towards American history, first derived from the head-center of American politics, should have been administered to Harvard by one of her own theological sons and former scholastic tutors, is an evidence of intellectual evolution no less natural than fitting.

PROFESSOR SPARKS' LECTURES.

Professor Sparks' lectures on American History at Harvard College passed through an evolutionary process, the original germs of which are no longer to be discovered. But among his private manuscripts, preserved by his family in Cambridge, there is a collection of lectures upon the above subject, elaborated for the Lowell Institute in Boston, and for other popular audiences, as indicated by the dates of delivery. In all probability these public lectures are but the popularization of academic materials first used for lectures to the Senior classes of Harvard College. The manuscripts, clearly written and neatly arranged, cover a wide range of topics, relating chiefly to the American Revolution. Although not elaborated to such a degree as to satisfy Mr. Sparks that they were fit for publication, they afford excellent evidence as to the solid character and original nature of the professor's academic

work. Quite independent of the chapters relating to the American Revolution in Sparks' "Life of Washington," these manuscript materials are to be viewed not only as the fittest survival of his academic lectures, but as the embryo of a proposed work on the American Revolution, which Jared Sparks had hoped to develop in his later years.

The idea of "A New History of America" was conceived by Jared Sparks about the time he closed his Baltimore pastorate in 1823. In 1824 he thought of a "History of Republican Institution in North America." The notion of a great work, to which the "Life of Washington" and numerous contributions to American biography were to be only tributary, took different shapes at different periods of his life, but it gradually centered upon the period of American Independence, and more especially upon the "History of the Diplomatic Relations of the United States during the War of the Revolution." To some such end were directed the chief energies of Mr. Sparks' later life, and particularly that period of it which followed his connection with Harvard College, where he remained professor of history until 1849 and continued as president, still lecturing on history to Seniors, until compelled by ill health to resign in 1853. From that time until the day of his death, in 1866, he never ceased to cherish his early dream. His vast collection of historical manuscripts, the property of the library of Harvard College, is at once a perpetual suggestion of his original idea, and an eloquent tribute to the college which first recognized the independent worth of American history. The unfinished lectures by Jared Sparks, the outgrowth of his college work, will perhaps some day be secured and placed in the college library in connection with the historical manuscripts. The idea contained in the lectures was designed to leaven the whole lump of manuscript materials. If Jared Sparks had not been disabled by an accident in 1851, which made note-taking almost impossible, the world would have probably heard more of this Harvard leaven, called "Lectures on American History."

Jared Sparks' professorship at Harvard College was epoch-making for American history rather than for historical teaching. It was understood from the outset that his chief energy was to be expended in lectures to the Senior and Junior classes. He himself says of his appointment, "Mr. Quincy said it was not proposed that I should have anything to do in the way of teaching by recitation from books. Occasional examinations and lectures were proposed. For anything else I am not to be responsible. Let the tutors drill the boys." And the tutors did it. It may be asserted with considerable confidence that practical historical teaching at Harvard College remained upon its ancient tutorial basis where Professor Sparks found it. He took it for granted that Juniors and Seniors had been fairly well drilled in the facts of general history during the first two years of their college course. His main object was to communicate instruction by lectures, "and not merely to discipline the students in the habit of study, which has been

done sufficiently in the early part of their college life." Every college or university professor of history will sympathize with Mr. Sparks' view, and be glad to see it put into practice. Professor Sparks did his own work thoroughly and conscientiously, but he did not expect much from "the boys." Like them, he thought examinations a good deal of a bore. He was a genial, kindly, and extremely popular man, both as professor and as president. When he came into the latter office, the students felt that he was on their side. While president he continued to lecture more or less on American History. Mr. Sparks' interest in his pupils was social and humane rather than pedagogical. His thought was not so much the historical training of American youth as the writing of history for the American people. His was a large and generous idea, and in all of his published work he has deserved well of his country; but the idea of the practical teaching of history, even of America, was yet to evolve from the tutorial system of Harvard College.

SURVIVAL OF THE TUTORIAL SYSTEM.

The functions of teacher and professor cannot be permanently separated. To be sure, in Germany, the two offices have been differentiated by the gymnasium and the university; but, in the latter, in recent times, there is a manifest return to old-fashioned tutorial methods in the institution of the so-called *Seminar*, where professor and student are once more brought together as master and pupil. Harvard College has never departed altogether from the scholastic system upon which the institution was founded. In the maintenance of the *classis*, the lecture-system, tutors, examinations, and recitations, as well as of religious exercises, and of moral restraints, this American university has held fast things that are good. In importing the German *Seminar*, young Harvard instructors have secured only a secular evolution of that old theological and tutorial system, once the common property of England and Germany, and described for New England, in 1642-'43, among the "Rules and Precepts that are observed in the Colledge":

"Every schollar shall be present in his Tutor's chamber at the 7th houre in the morning, immediately after the sound of the bell, at his opening the scripture and prayer, so also at the 5th houre at night, and then give account of his own private reading as aforesaid in particular the third ['reading the scriptures twice a day'], and constantly attend lectures in the hall at the houres appointed. But if any (without necessary impediment) shall absent himself from prayer or lectures, he shall be lyable to admonition, if he offend above once a weeke."

Here are theological germs of the modern system of scholastic training. Here are tutors and pupils in the closest class relations. Here are chamber conferences on private readings. Here, also, is the lecture system, with religious exercises, and even licensed "cuts."

The tutorial system has survived at Harvard, and in all American colleges, down to the present day. The system has been variously modi-

fied in different institutions. It has given rise to "instructors," "assistants," and "advisers"; but the original and essential pedagogical idea has never departed from the tutorial office. The tutor's business is and ever has been to teach and guide, as did the Grecian *Παιδαγωγός*. At Harvard, as elsewhere, the best practical teachers have evolved from the tutorial system. If one looks backward through Harvard catalogues for a period of thirty-five or forty years, he will discover that the present academic staff is largely of tutorial origin. From Dr. Peabody and President Eliot,¹ who began their official connection with the college—the first in 1832, and the second in 1854—both as tutors of mathematics, down to the most recent appointments of instructors and assistant professors, this statement will in general hold true. Harvard, founded "to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity" (see New England's First Fruits), has always remained a training school for pastors and teachers. It has always recruited its professors chiefly from tutorial ranks. Its record of academic service affords striking evidence in favor of professorial appointments upon the basis of successful experience as subordinate teachers. While promotions for genius or exceptional merit must always be admitted in any good administration, even at the expense of seniority and faithful service, yet, on the whole, the history of Harvard, and of most American college faculties, is a history of the gradual advancement of tutors by a system of collegiate service, which is to universities what a progressive civil service would be to the State and nation.

As we have already seen, the germs of historical instruction at Harvard were first planted by tutors as early as 1642. The scholastic plant was kept alive by the Freshmen and Sophomore tutors for more than two centuries. It began to flourish with the coming of Professor Sparks, who began his academic career at Harvard as tutor of Mathematics. The tutors continued to do the practical work of teaching History. "Let the tutors drill the boys," said Mr. Sparks. Who were the men who performed, during his régime, this pedagogical work in the historical department? There were various tutors for Freshmen and Sophomores in History during the professorship of Jared Sparks, but there are two names that deserve special mention, for they stand for the chief pioneers in the historico-political work of the present generation of Harvard teachers. The two names are Francis Bowen and Henry W. Torrey.

PROFESSOR FRANCIS BOWEN.

Francis Bowen is now the "Alford Professor of Natural Religion, Moral Philosophy, and Civil Polity." His present title indicates the somewhat mosaic character of his professional work, but it by no means represents the variety of subjects which Professor Bowen has taught since he began his pedagogical career at Harvard College as tutor.

¹Mr. Eliot became Assistant Professor of Mathematics and Chemistry in 1858; Assistant Professor of Chemistry in the Lawrence Scientific School in 1861.

There is hardly any subject in the ordinary range of academic instruction which he has not at one time or another represented. He was tutor of Greek at Harvard as early as 1835. He edited an excellent edition of Virgil, which was still in use when the writer graduated from Phillips Exeter Academy in 1868, when Francis Bowen was one of the regular examiners of that institution. He has taught Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Mental and Moral Philosophy, and written text-books on Ethics, Metaphysics, and Logic. He has taught Political Economy and written a text-book upon that subject. For years as tutor and professor he represented Civil Polity at Harvard College, and his text-book, called "American and English Documents of the Constitution, from Magna Charta to the Constitution of 1789," was the very first attempt to make known to our youth the foundations of Anglo-American constitutional liberty from original texts. He anticipated by many years the idea of Bishop Stubbs' Select Charters, illustrating English Constitutional History. Like Jared Sparks, Mr. Bowen had a special predilection for American History. He wrote four of the volumes in Sparks' Library of American Biography, viz, Steuben, Otis, General Lincoln, and Sir William Phips. Like Sparks, he also edited a popular European text-book of History, with an American supplement. If Smyth's Lectures on Modern History, brought out by Mr. Sparks at Cambridge, served to connect American and European History, Weber's Outlines of Universal History, edited and enlarged by Francis Bowen, brought together the Old World and the New in the most ancient and in the most modern sense of those terms. Bowen's edition of Weber was introduced into the Harvard College curriculum in 1853 as the historical text-book for Freshmen. Probably no text-book of universal history has, on the whole, served so many students so well in Germany, England, and America as that manual written by Georg Weber, for many years lecturer on History and superintendent of schools in Heidelberg. The work has passed through many German editions. The American adaptation of this German work by Francis Bowen is still thought by some teachers to be one of the most comprehensive and convenient text-books of General History. Professor Bowen also brought out an American edition of De Tocqueville's Democracy in America, revised from Reeve's translation and supplemented by fresh materials from De Tocqueville's later writings. The country at large owes a great debt to Francis Bowen for his pioneer work in preparing the way for the present general study of History and Civil Polity. Harvard College, in particular, is indebted to him for valuable tutorial work in Historical and Political Science as well as in the many other branches which he was required by the needs of his time to represent. So closely was Mr. Bowen identified with the teaching of American History and American Political Economy that while yet a tutor he was naturally looked upon as the successor of Professor Sparks. After the latter was made president, in 1849, Francis Bowen, who had been absent from

the college since 1839, appears in the college catalogue for 1850 as "McLean Professor of Ancient and Modern History, and Instructor in Political Economy." In 1853 he was appointed "Alford Professor of Natural Religion, Moral Philosophy, and Civil Polity," succeeding in that chair Professor James Walker, who became president of the college upon the resignation of Mr. Sparks.

Professor Bowen's interpretation of the duties of the Alford Professorship of Natural Religion, Moral Philosophy, and Civil Polity was very favorable to a broad construction of the subject last named. Evidently Politics, Political Economy, and History were by no means least in Mr. Bowen's philosophical estimation. Among his courses announced in 1853, we find not only Reid's Essays, Stewart's Philosophy, and Whewell's Elements of Morality, but also McCulloch's Edition of Adam Smith's Lectures on Political Economy, Kent's Commentaries (Vol. I), and lectures on the English and American Constitutions. In fact, the main philosophical work of Professor Bowen for the Senior year was political and economic. Philosophy proper, for the most part, was taught in Junior year. Forensics also appear to have been under the charge of Mr. Bowen, and Guizot's History of the Origin of Representative Government in Europe was taught by him to the Seniors in 1853. The next year Bowen's Lowell Lectures were added to the Junior work, and the Federalist to the Senior work. In 1855 came Bowen's Ethics and Metaphysics for Juniors. From the time of President Sparks' resignation, in 1853, until 1857, when Mr. Torrey entered upon the duties of the McLean Professorship of Ancient and Modern History, there was only one tutor regularly appointed to represent this entire field. This was James Jennison, "Tutor in History and Instructor in Elocution." The Freshmen had one term in Felton's edition of Smith's Greece, the Juniors enjoyed one term of English History, and the Seniors one term of United States History. Undoubtedly, the chief burden of sustaining historical and political studies at Harvard College during this interval fell upon Professor Bowen, and he carried the burden well.

Professor Bowen's American Political Economy and his Documents of the Constitution were introduced into the Senior curriculum in 1856; but from this time on, there being now a regular professor of History, Mr. Bowen's work took a more purely philosophical character. It is interesting to trace in old college catalogues the steady drift of his later teaching toward the history of philosophy and the constant progress in his class methods. Adopting new text-books at the expense of his own, keeping ever abreast with the times, Professor Bowen stood at the head of the philosophical department of Harvard College for thirty-three years. A glance at recent philosophical courses at Harvard will show that he has expounded French philosophy through the aid of French texts, and studied in the original with his classes the most modern German philosophy. He continued for many years to teach

Political Economy, but finally handed over this subject to his successor in that field, Prof. Charles F. Dunbar, who was appointed in 1871, and who of late years has enjoyed the co-operation of younger men, notably Dr. F. W. Taussig and Assistant Professor J. Laurence Laughlin, in the teaching of Economics.

PROFESSOR HENRY W. TORREY.

Mr. Torrey began teaching at Harvard College in 1844, as tutor in History and Political Economy and instructor in Elocution. He taught these subjects in the college with decided success until 1848, when he took charge of a private school in Boston. Mr. Torrey was succeeded in his tutorial and elocutionary work by Francis J. Child, who, graduating from Harvard in 1846, first became tutor of Mathematics, in which position he served until 1848, when he became tutor of History and Political Economy. He dropped the latter subject in 1849, and soon after dropped History also. He went abroad for the sake of study at Göttingen, where he prepared for the "Boylston Professorship of Rhetoric and Oratory," to which he was appointed in 1851.

In 1856 Mr. Torrey received the appointment to the McLean Professorship of Ancient and Modern History, which position he held until 1886. He spent the year 1856-'57 chiefly in Europe. He began in 1857 his professorial work with the Seniors, teaching them, the first term, Greek History from Felton's edition of Smith, and, the second term, the History of the United States. This combination of Ancient and Modern History, by means of representative courses, is an idea which can be applied to great advantage in colleges where one man is required to occupy the entire field of History. There remained, however, at Harvard, during the early part of Professor Torrey's régime, a Freshman tutor of History, who had two recitations a week, usually in several divisions, as was the rule in the days of Professor Sparks, when Mr. Torrey himself served as tutor. James Jennison, A. M., was tutor of History and Elocution from 1851 until 1860, when his functions were distributed, he himself retaining Elocution and Edwin Hale Abbott receiving History, with the addition of Greek and Latin. From this time until the year 1867 there was no special instructor of History. This fact marks a survival of the original connection between the historical and classical departments. At Harvard College historical instruction for Freshmen long remained upon classical foundations. In these modern days the elements of Greek and Roman History have been crowded back into the preparatory school, where they more properly belong. To secure this end, gradual modifications of the historical requirements for admission to the college were made, with the approbation of Professor Torrey. In 1861, Smith's *Smaller History of Greece*, or Sewell's *History of Greece*, was substituted for that part of Worcester's *History* which related to the above subject. In 1862 the outlines of Roman History were added to the requirements, and, since then, with slight variations

of policy, the classical ground was, until lately, maintained as a *sine qua non* of historical matriculation. The conditions now are: Either (1) History of Greece and Rome; or (2) History of the United States and of England.

The following works serve to indicate the amount of knowledge demanded in History: Smith's Smaller History of Greece (to the death of Alexander); Leighton's History of Rome (to the death of Commodus); Higginson's Young Folks' History of the United States (to the end of Chapter XXI); and Johnston's History of the United States for Schools (beginning at § 269); Guest and Underwood's Handbook of English History (to the year 1793).

The following selections are recommended for additional reading, and are made the basis of optional questions in the examination.¹

For Greek History: Curtius, History of Greece, Book I, ch. 1, Book II, ch. 4, and Book III, ch. 3.

For Roman History: Beesly's The Gracchi, Marius, and Sulla; Tighe's Development of the Roman Constitution.

For American History: Lodge's English Colonies, Chapters II and XXII; Morse's John Quincy Adams, Chapters II and III; Josiah Quincy's Figures of the Past.

For English History: Macaulay's History of England, Chapters I and III.

The first advance in the historical requirements for admission to Harvard College led the way to a higher order of instruction in Classical History than was possible under the old régime. Thus not only were more scholarly authors, such as Grote and Gibbon, employed in Greek and Roman History, but the classical and even the modern languages were made, more and more, the means of interpreting ancient life. These improvements in the teaching of Classical History at Harvard College will be considered in greater detail in connection with the work of Professor Felton and Professor Gurney.

Professor Torrey's own work as an historical teacher may be divided into two periods: (1) from 1857 to 1870; (2) from 1870 until his retirement in 1886. The reason for this division lies in the limitation which Mr. Torrey set upon his labors after President Eliot came into office and began to strengthen the teaching force of the historical department by the promotion of Mr. Gurney to the position of University Professor of History, and by the appointment of Henry Adams to be Assistant Professor. These two men represented, in their work, great sections of History. Mr. Gurney occupied the field of Classical History, particularly that of Rome. Mr. Adams stood (1) for Mediæval History and (2) for American History. Professor Torrey took Modern Europe. The work of this professorial triumvirate, and of the men who were associated with them, is the foundation of the present historical department of Harvard College.

¹ Candidates who take the questions on the selections are allowed to omit some of the questions on the corresponding Manual.

From 1856 until 1870 is the period during which Professor Torrey represented general European History, not only in name as "Professor of Ancient and Modern History," but in fact. It has been already stated that in 1857 he taught the History of Greece and of the United States to the Senior class. This is at once the beginning and end of European History. The main work of Mr. Torrey during the above period of fourteen years was between classical and modern extremes, but with an evident leaning to the modern side. He soon resigned Classical History to tutors and to the classical department. In the latter field Mr. Gurney was advanced from his first position as tutor of Latin and Greek in 1857 to the position of an Assistant Professor of History in 1868. Thus the classical side of History was made strong. To fill the gap between the Græco-Roman world and American History, Mr. Torrey proceeded to build upon the foundations already laid by tutorial experience. He taught, year after year, such well-approved books as Guizot's History of Civilization in France and Europe, Robertson's Introduction to the Life of Charles V, Arnold's Lectures on History, Hallam's Middle Ages, Stephen's Lectures on the History of France, Michelet's Summary, and De Tocqueville's Ancien Régime. All of these writers were not taken in any one year, but perhaps two of them in one term, by Seniors, who had another term for English and American Constitutional History, either singly or in combination. The standard text-books in the Anglo-American field varied from time to time, but among them were Bowen's Documents of the Constitution, Hallam's and May's Constitutional History of England, Mill's Representative Government, The Federalist, Story's Commentaries on the Constitution, Sheppard's Constitutional Text-Book, Eliot's History of the United States, and Pomeroy's Commentary on the Constitution. Here are two main lines of work: (1) in General European History, and (2) in the Constitutional History of England and the United States. Professor Torrey, from the very beginning of his career, laid great stress upon English and American history, yet the main current of his teaching was in the line of general European History. The latter course was always required of the Seniors down to the year 1870, whereas toward that time English and American Constitutional History began to be offered as electives. Philosophy and Political Economy, under Professor Bowen, and History, under Professor Torrey, were the Senior strongholds of required work, but, at the same time, it should be said, these were always attractive courses. In 1869-'70 the required class-work in History and Philosophy was three hours a week for each. Both departments offered a Senior elective of two hours a week. When we consider that in required courses the classes recited in divisions, each taking an hour of the professors' time, we shall realize that a good deal of work was done by Professors Torrey and Bowen. The work was chiefly in the conduct of recitations and in the familiar exposition of historical and philosophical subjects. Once a week for many years a formal lecture was given in Harvard

Hall to Seniors by Professor Torrey or Professor Bowen. This was one popular feature of a general system of faculty lectures to undergraduates—a system which developed in 1869-'70, with the coming of President Eliot, into University¹ courses of lectures by persons of distinction from outside the walls. It is noticeable during this period, from 1857 to 1870, that Professor Torrey's work was entirely with the Senior class. The Freshmen had classical history with their tutors. The Sophomores had more or less of it in classical texts with the use of Grote, and, after the appointment of Professor Gurney in 1868, of Mommsen and Gibbon. The Juniors had historical electives in Greek and Latin texts. Altogether, the classical foundations were well laid. The Middle Ages were not made prominent, although they were represented as well as circumstances at that time allowed. Professor Torrey's own historical predilections are strongly indicated in the college catalogue as early as 1868, when his required Senior work was defined as "Modern History."

In the year 1870 History became an elective for the Senior class, and Mr. Henry Adams was made Assistant Professor, Mr. Gurney being advanced to the position of University Professor of History. A better distribution of labor and a better arrangement of historical studies were the natural results of these changes. Mr. Torrey, true to predilections already manifest in his work before the year 1870, now began to restrict his teaching to Modern European History. He resigned the mediæval field to Mr. Adams, as already he had left the classical field to Mr. Gurney. Henceforth we find Professor Torrey's historical work divided into three main courses, each of three hours a week. These courses he was accustomed to vary in successive years. The divisions were: (1) Modern History, the seventeenth and the first half of the eighteenth centuries; (2) Modern History, chiefly of France and England, from the middle of the eighteenth century; (3) Diplomatic History, or the History of Modern Treaties since 1648, with the Elements of Public International Law (*e. g.*, Woolsey's). In this connection it is interesting to note that Professor Torrey early adopted the idea of teaching Modern History with the aid of French texts.

For a time Mr. Torrey retained English and American Constitutional History, but of late years more and more of this modern work has been handled by Mr. Macvane, made University Professor in 1886, who has been doing much of that fundamental work in general European History,

¹ The system of outside lectureships was inaugurated at Harvard University by President Eliot in 1869-'70. Without regard to dates, we have noted the following: Samuel Eliot, LL.D., of Boston, was invited to lecture on the "History of the Nineteenth Century"; Professor James Hadley, of Yale College, on "Roman Law"; Charles Callahan Perkins, A.M., of Boston, on the "History of Ancient Art"; Ralph Waldo Emerson, of Concord, on "The Natural History of the Intellect"; Chauncey Wright, of Cambridge, on "Psychology"; John Fiske, of Cambridge, on "Positive Philosophy"; William Dean Howells, of Cambridge, on "New Italian Literature"; Oliver Wendell Holmes, jr., LL.B., on "Jurisprudence."

mediæval as well as modern, which Professor Torrey always found necessary, and without which more special courses are, for most students, a delusion and a snare. At one time Professor Torrey employed the valuable services of Dr. Edward Channing to aid in the diplomatic course, particularly upon the History of Modern Treaties, but Dr. Channing has lately been engaged by the university for the colonial field of American History. One new and highly suggestive course of instruction Professor Torrey developed in recent years, that, namely, on the Forms of Government and Political Constitutions, particularly in Continental Europe, since 1789. This signifies Comparative Constitutional History, or what Mr. Freeman calls Comparative Politics, for which broad field of study there is a most hopeful future.

EXAMINATION IN MODERN HISTORY.

(Seventeenth century and first half of the eighteenth.)

Professor Torrey—1873.

N. B.—A number marked with an asterisk may be substituted for the same number without it, but for no other.

1. The constitution, functions, and pretensions of the French Parliaments (*Parlements*).

1*. The elements of the power and greatness of Louis XIV.

2. Sully and Colbert.

2*. Compare Henry IV and William III.

3. The habeas corpus act of 1679; its provisions and the necessity of them. How far was it improved by the act of 56 George III?

3*. Three Triennial Acts; severally under Charles I, Charles II, and William III. The Septennial Act.

4. "Three great coalitions, three long and bloody wars in which all Europe from the Vistula to the Western Ocean was in arms, are to be attributed to William's unconquerable energy. * * * His public spirit was a European public spirit. * * * He did never, to the end of his life, become either a Whig or a Tory."

"In spite of his people, he resolved to make them great and glorious; to make England, inclined to shrink into her narrow self, the arbitress of Europe."

4*. Account for the low rank held by England as a European power under the first four Stuarts (severally), and for the high rank held by her under Cromwell, under William III, and under Anne.

5. Write briefly on *six* of the following: (1) Eliot, (2) Falkland, (3) Hyde, (4) Chillingworth, (5) Wentworth, (6) Danby, (7) Harley, (8) Atterbury, (9) Hoadley.

6. Define, explain, or describe *six* of the following: (1) Two Convention Parliaments; (2) Petitioners and Abhorrrers; (3) The case of the Seven Bishops; (4) Compounders and Non-Compounders; (5) The affair of Magdalen College; (6) Act of Grace; (7) Tenure of Judicial Offices; (8) Oath of Abjuration (1702); (9) The Conferences of Gertruydenberg.

7. Describe any three noted impeachments or bills of attainder. State accurately the distinction between these two ways of proceeding against an offender. Why is one of them prohibited by the Constitution of the United States?

8. Arguments for and against the Treaty of Utrecht.

EXAMINATION IN MODERN HISTORY.

(From the middle of the eighteenth century.)

Professor Torrey—1873.

N. B.—A number marked with an asterisk may be substituted for the same number not so marked. No other substitution can be made.

1. Mr. Pitt, in 1783, in 1792 (and the next following years), in 1801.

1 *. George III and the Coalition Ministry ; George IV and the Catholic question ; William IV and the Melbourne Ministry.

2. Protection of fugitive foreigners in England. Give some instances. Point out any legislative departure from the usual course. Refer also to the noted act of Congress of 1798. Extradition and its limitations in England and the United States.

2 *. "Chatham sleeps near the northern door of the church, in a spot which has ever since been appropriated to statesmen, as the other end of the transept has long been to poets. Mansfield rests there, and the second William Pitt, and Fox, and Grattan, and Canning, and Wilberforce." Show, not too vaguely, the claims of these men to this honor.

3. The overthrow of the slave trade and of slavery in England and elsewhere under English rule, as also in the United States, so far as it has been recognized or effected by formal judgments, by direct legislation, or by constitutional provisions. Give the history of that clause in the Constitution which begins with these words: "The migration or importation of such persons."

4. Compare in character and details the reform act of 1867 with that of 1832.

4 *. What temporary incapacity has been created under a clause of the Constitution of the United States by the recent raising of the salaries of the justices of the Supreme Court? In what manner has the constitutional power "to provide for calling forth the militia" in certain cases been exercised? Name an instance in which the Government of the United States was called upon to protect a State against domestic violence?

5. Our relations with France in 1798–1800, and in 1831–'36?

5.* The treaty of Washington in 1842; its occasion and its terms. The Oregon question and its settlement in 1846; refer to subsequent controversy and its recent adjustment (1872).

6. Connect circumstantially together the annexation of Texas, the Mexican war, and the compromise of 1850.

7. Briefly specify, describe, or explain *six* of the following: (1) The American loyalists; (2) the duration of the period of the Confederation; (3) the mode of ratifying the Constitution; (4) Washington's first cabinet; (5) the armed neutrality of 1780; (6) Napoleon's continental system; (7) the embargo; (8) the disposal of the public deposits.

8. 1794 (constitutionally); 1798 (Ireland); the first day of this century; 1806 (as to two statesmen); 1811–'20; 1827 (as to another statesman); 1828 and 1829 (in connection); 1829 and 1846 (by analogy); 1789 and 1830; 1858 (India). Take *six*.

PROFESSOR FELTON AND GREEK HISTORY.

The old alliance between the classical and historical departments at Harvard was destined to bear good fruit in the development of classical history as a distinct branch of historical instruction. Greek and Roman history had always been taught in elementary ways, as introductory to General History; but Cornelius C. Felton, Eliot Professor of Greek Literature, 1832–'60 (tutor in 1829), introduced the

idea of teaching Classical History from the original sources. His edition of Selections from the Greek Historians was used for many years at Harvard College in the Freshman and Sophomore classes as one of the principal text-books. Herodotus and Thucydides were the chief historians read. Professor Felton's interest in the historical bearings of his Greek courses is shown, not alone by his text-book of Greek historians, which went through many editions, but by his revision of Smith's History of Greece for class use at Harvard. Felton's edition of Smith appears in the college catalogue for successive years after 1855. The introduction of Grote's History of Greece, Vol. XI, as required reading in connection with Sophomore Greek (Demosthenes), is further evidence of Professor Felton's historical tendencies in the conduct of his department. He was in position to give a still more decided impulse to the study of Classical History by means of original sources, when in 1860 he became president of the college. He died in 1862, and was succeeded by President Hill (1862-'68). Long after President Felton's death, we find his idea of Ancient History through Greek Texts still prominent in the college catalogues. Felton's Selections from Greek Historians and Smith's History of Greece continued in use for many years, doubtless with the approbation of his immediate successor in the department of Greek Literature, Professor William W. Goodwin. It is characteristic of the broad historical sympathies of Professor Felton that he was inclined to admit Modern Greece within the range of historical vision. His lectures before the Lowell Institute on Greece, Ancient and Modern, indicate this fact. It would be interesting to know whether he was influenced in these modern views by his long association with a native Greek, Evangelinus A. Sophocles, who, in 1847, became tutor in Mr. Felton's department, and was made University Professor of Ancient, Byzantine, and Modern Greek the very year that Professor Felton became president of the college. President Felton published a companion volume to his Selections from the Greek Historians, entitled Selections from Modern Greek Writers. It is easy to fancy that, in the choice of these modern selections, he had the counsel of Professor Sophocles. It is noteworthy, in conclusion, that Felton's Selections from the Greek Historians are still in use in American Colleges. An excellent revised edition (Boston, 1885), prepared by Professor Fernald, of Williams College, keeps the valuable work of Professor Felton still before the minds of American youth.

The extension of Professor Felton's idea of teaching Classical History by means of classical texts was very natural, and perhaps necessary. The connection between the Greek and Latin departments in this matter was very close, for in 1865, while Felton's Selections from the Greek Historians was still in use, "Roman History" was announced as an elective for the first term of Junior year, through the Greek medium of Plutarch. "Ancient History in Greek," *i. e.*, Thucydides, Books I, II, V, VI, VII, and portions of Grote, V, VI, VII, constituted another

Junior elective, taught by Professor Goodwin. The second term, Junior year, "Roman History," *i. e.*, Tacitus, Suetonius, and Velleius Paterculus, was offered by Professor Lane as an elective. "Ancient History" is advertised for Juniors through the Greek medium of Polybius and Plutarch, taught by Professor Sophocles. The Sophomores have "Roman History" as a required study, but no original texts are mentioned. Sophomores also have, as electives, Felton's Greek Historians and Demosthenes, with portions of Grote's History of Greece (Vol. XI, Chaps. 86-90). From about the year 1865 there seems to have been a marked tendency to combine the study of History with the study of Languages, ancient and modern. Not only were Greek and Latin authors announced as "Ancient History," but from this time on, French was made to serve the purpose of teaching Greek History to Freshmen. The announcement of "History in French, *Histoire Grecque* par Duruy" appears in the college curriculum for several years. The idea of History through the medium of a modern language was soon extended from Greek to Roman, then to Mediæval History, for, in 1869, *Histoire Romaine* par Duruy and *Histoire du Moyen Age* par Duruy, were introduced, respectively, into the Freshman and Sophomore required courses. In 1869 a special tutor was appointed in History and the Modern Languages, which was an entirely new aspect of the old historico-linguistic alliance.

PROFESSOR GURNEY AND ROMAN HISTORY.

The development of Roman History in connection with the classical department is well illustrated by the academic work of Professor E. W. Gurney. He began his official connection with the college in 1857 as tutor of Greek and Latin. The next year he was designated tutor of Latin, and remained in this position until 1863, when he was made Assistant Professor of Latin. In 1867 he was appointed Assistant Professor of Philosophy, and the next year he became Assistant Professor of History. In 1870 he was made University Professor of History and Dean of the Faculty. As in the case of Professor Felton, there was undoubtedly a tendency toward History in the very nature of Mr. Gurney's classical work. Clearly it was his position as tutor and Assistant Professor of Latin which first determined his interest in Roman History, Roman Law, and Institutions.

Professor Gurney's distinctively historical work began with the introduction of such advanced text-books as the Student's Gibbon, using about twenty selected chapters, and Rawlinson's Manual of Ancient History, or the History of Rome down to the death of Augustus. The use of one or the other of these text-books, two hours a week, for the first half year, constituted the required work in Roman History. The class recited in divisions. In 1872 an elective in Roman and early Mediæval History was offered to Juniors, twice a week. Selections from Mommson's History of Rome and from Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire formed the groundwork of this class-course. From such

beginnings Professor Gurney gradually worked out for his students a course, two hours a week, on later Roman and early Mediæval History, from Augustus to Charlemagne, with especial reference to Institutions. Alternating with this course, every other year, was one on Roman History to the fall of the Republic, with special reference to the development of Political Institutions in Greece and Rome. He also developed a special course in Roman Law (Inheritance), based on the Institutes of Gaius and Justinian, and on selections from the Digest. In this latter field of Roman Law,¹ Professor Gurney enjoyed the co-operation of Assistant Professor Ernest Young, who lectured on Obligations and Procedure and the Law of Property.

EXAMINATION IN ROMAN HISTORY.

[For Sophomores, first half year; required course of two hours a week.]

Professor Gurney—1873.

The first question and seven others, to be selected at pleasure, were to be answered. The dates of events were always to be given.

1. Draw a map of Italy showing its chief physical features and ancient political divisions. Mark upon it the sites of *Tarentum*, *Capua*, *Sentinum*, *Luceria*, *Heraclea*, *Præneste*, *Beneventum*, and the courses of the rivers *Liris*, *Metaurus*, *Volturnus*.

2. Give an outline of the history of the Samnites before and after their first encounter with the Romans; likewise of the connection of other peoples of Italy with the Samnites in their resistance to the Romans.

3. Give, in chronological order, an outline of the wars or other circumstances which led to the reduction to the condition of Roman provinces of *Sicily*, *Sardinia*, *Spain*, *Africa*, *Macedonia*, *Asia*, *Gaul*, *Syria*.

4. Give, in chronological order, an outline of the chief wars in which the Romans were engaged during the century preceding the battle of Actium.

5. Give a list of the emperors from Augustus to Commodus (with the dates of their accession), and mention, in chronological order, the most important wars of this period.

6. Give an account of the Roman Constitution under the kings.

7. The series of laws (between the years 500 and 300 B. C.) by which the Plebeians were put upon a political equality with the Patricians.

8. The origin and constitution of the *Comitia Curiata*; of the *Comitia Centuriata* (in its original and in its remodeled form); of the *Comitia Tributa*; and of their respective functions under the Republic.

9. When and under what circumstances were the offices of *Consul*, *Prætor*, *Ædile*, *Quæstor*, and *Tribunus Plebis* respectively created, and what were their several functions?

10. How was the *Senate* constituted? What part did it take in the administration of the State, and how did its power become predominant?

11. What were the purposes of the Roman system of colonization, and at what periods was it most fully carried out? What were *Coloniæ Civium Romanorum* and *Coloniæ Latinæ*? What were *Fœderatæ Civitates* in Italy; how were they governed; and what were their relations to Rome before the year 90 B. C.?

12. What was the position of the *Provinces* in relation to the management of their own affairs and to Rome? How were taxes in them collected? From what forms of

¹ Lectures on Roman Law were given to the students of Harvard College in 1870-'71 by Professor James Hadley, of Yale College.

injustice did they especially suffer, and what remedies had they? What effect on the Provinces had the establishment of the Empire?

13. What was the *Ager Publicus*? What were the principal laws passed concerning it, and what important part did it play in the history of the Republic?

14. State as clearly and fully as you can the causes which led to the downfall of the Republic and the establishment of the Empire.

15. Give as complete an account as you are able of the theory and practice of the Roman Constitution under Augustus.

EXAMINATION IN ROMAN AND EARLY MEDIEVAL HISTORY.

Professor Gurney—June, 1873.

1. "It might be maintained that the whole history of a state is the record of a series of differentiations of special organs to meet special needs." Point out in detail how the development of the Roman republican magistrates illustrates this statement.

2. "The Senate, a body of life peers, freely chosen by the people, had always been the vital institution of republican Rome. The popular assemblies had always been insignificant by the side of the Senate; but, by the constitution, the rabble of Rome could at any time take into their own hands legislation and government." Comment in detail upon each statement in this passage.

3. "The first Gracchus, with perfectly pure intentions, showed them the way to do this. The second Gracchus formed this city rabble into a standing army of revolution." Show as clearly as you can the relations of the Gracchi to the Revolution.

4. "It was the necessity of defending the state against its foreign enemies that caused the fall of republican institutions. It was not aristocratic privilege, but aristocratic feebleness, that the people rebelled against. The two parties at last were the Senate and the army." Illustrate fully these statements from the history of the last century of the Republic.

5. "In the place of anarchy the Empire brought centralization and responsibility. To the Roman world it gave internal tranquillity; to the government a more equitable spirit." Give an account of the Imperial institutions which will show how these ends were accomplished.

6. "It would be a convenient thing if we could accustom ourselves to the notion of a second Roman Revolution, beginning with the death of Marcus Aurelius and ending with the accession of Diocletian. In the convulsions of this revolutionary period we are able to discern the difficulties with which the Imperial system had to cope." Illustrate this passage fully from the history of the period.

7. "Rome was saved by Diocletian from partition among viceroys; but it was a temporary arrangement, and gave place to the permanent institutions of Constantine. The Empire was no longer Roman by nationality, nor in the sense of possessing the political institutions which had originally belonged to Rome. The Senate as an organ of aristocratic opinion had practically disappeared, and the life-president had become a Sultan. A principal feature of this age is the enormous multiplication of offices and officials, a bureaucracy formed after the military model." Explain each of these statements in detail.

8. "In the age of the degenerate sons of Theodosius, the barbaric world decisively encroaches on the Roman. The Empire is plundered under cover of a commission from the Emperor himself. Rome is sacked. Most of Gaul, Spain, and Africa are torn from the Empire. Barbaric chieftains make and unmake the Emperors of the West." Give a succinct account of the series of events here alluded to.

PROFESSOR HENRY ADAMS.

In 1870, the year after President Eliot came into office, Henry Adams, son of Charles Francis Adams, was appointed Assistant Professor of History. That same year, also, Mr. Gurney was advanced from the

position of Assistant Professor to that of University Professor of History. The significance of Mr. Gurney's appointment we have already noted. Mr. Adams' appointment marks the beginning of a new epoch in the historical department of Harvard College. It may be characterized as an epoch of institutional studies, chiefly in the Frankish, German, and early English fields. It was pioneer work at Harvard, and it led to the first really original researches in History by Harvard students.

The Essays in Anglo-Saxon Law, which were published in 1876, and which were dedicated to President Eliot as the first-fruits of his administration, comprised absolutely original investigations by Mr. Adams, on "Anglo-Saxon Courts of Law," and by his most advanced students, Ernest Young, on "Anglo-Saxon Family Law," Henry Cabot Lodge, on "Anglo-Saxon Land Law," and J. Laurence Laughlin, on "Anglo-Saxon Legal Procedure." These Harvard studies were republished in England, and have been received with great favor by specialists in the early history of institutions.

It is not without profit to inquire into the foundations of this original work represented by Professor Adams at Harvard. It was based upon an elective course in Mediæval History, three hours a week, comprising lectures and the use of such standard authorities as Hallam's Middle Ages; Bryce's Holy Roman Empire; Kohlrausch's or Menzel's History of Germany; Stephen's, Sismondi's, Michelet's, or the Student's History of France; and Milman's Latin Christianity. It was a general course, covering, when fully developed, the history of Europe from the eighth to the sixteenth century. It connected, on the one hand, with Professor Gurney's work in Classical and later Roman History, and, on the other, with Professor Torrey's courses in Modern European History. The character of the knowledge required in the early part of this course, before it was fully expanded, is indicated by the following examination paper, which was set in June, 1872:

EXAMINATION IN MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

Professor Adams—June, 1872.

Map of France and Germany. Mark the provinces:

(1) Picardy. (2) Navarre. (3) Champagne. (4) Poitou. (5) Gascony. (6) Anjou. (7) Provence. (8) Maine. (9) Armagnac. (10) Guienne. (11) Arelat, or the Kingdom of Burgundy. (12) Duchy of Burgundy. (13) Franche-Comté. (14) Franconia. (15) Carinthia. (16) Alsace. (17) Limousin. (18) Westphalia. (19) Hainault. (20) Lausitz. (21) Thuringia.

CITIES AND PLACES.—(a) Treves. (b) Mainz. (c) Angers. (d) Regensburg or Ratisbon. (e) Strasburg. (f) Meissen. (g) Ghent. (h) Brunswick. (i) Speier. (k) Bamberg. (l) Bâle. (m) Rochelle. (n) Avignon. (o) Laon. (p) Albi. (q) Peronne. (r) Beziers. (s) Toul. (t) Bordeaux. (u) Hohenstaufen. (v) Hohenzollern. (x) Hapsburg.

EMPIRE.—1. Name the emperors between 900 and 962. 2. Give a table of Henry the Fowler's children and grandchildren. 3. Gisibert of Lorraine. 4. Godfrey of Lorraine. 5. When were Bavaria and Saxony first given to the Welfs? 6. Circum-

stances of the Imperial election of 1125. 7. When and for what occasion was Austria made a duchy? 8. Peter della Vineia.

CHURCH.—9. What title did the Church claim to territorial sovereignty? 10. Pope Formosa. 11. Hilderbrandine Popes, 1050–1100. 12. The Crusades and the principal persons concerned in each. 13. The famous bulls of Boniface VIII. 14. Constitution of the Cardinals' College. 15. The great monastic and medicant orders. 16. Pope John XXIII.

FRANCE.—17. Capetian kings from 888–987. 18. When and how did the Duchy of Burgundy first come to the Capetian family? 19. The Duchy of Normandy; when created, and when annexed to the domain? 20. When was Poitou taken from England? 21. Toulouse; when obtained by the Crown. 22. Table showing Edward III's claim to the crown. 23. The Angevin dynasties of Naples. 24. The Constable d'Armagnac.

This course in the general history of mediæval Europe represents the first formal introduction of that field of study into the Harvard curriculum. Hitherto the Middle Ages had been treated very cursorily, after the manner of Robertson's Introduction to his Life of Charles V. The work of Mr. Adams first brought the so-called Dark Ages into light and prominence in the Harvard historical curriculum. Since his time, Mediæval History has held its own with great energy. The work has devolved upon different individuals at different times; but the direct successor of Mr. Adams and the man who to-day conducts this general course is Dr. Ernest Young, one of Mr. Adams's best pupils. Mr. Young became an instructor in History and Roman Law in 1874, and is now Assistant Professor of History, holding the same place and doing even more work than did his original master. Dr. Emerton also entered the Mediæval field and early won distinction, particularly in Church History.

According to the original plan of Mr. Adams, the general course in Mediæval History was introductory to a more special course in Mediæval Institutions, a course of two hours a week, open only to candidates for honors. In 1871–'72 seven members of the Junior class undertook this advanced work, which comprised lectures on Feudalism and the Salic Law, the class using the original text of the latter. Such authorities as the *Germania* of Tacitus, Maine's *Ancient Law* and *Village Communities*, Hallam's *Middle Ages*, etc., were also employed. The influence of the writings of Sir Henry Sumner Maine was just beginning to be felt by students of Law and History in America, and Mr. Adams communicated, through these writings and his own individual studies, a powerful impetus to historical work at Harvard. The writer has been told by former students of Mr. Adams that his custom was to distribute among members of his advanced class the principal subjects treated by Sir Henry Maine, and to require individual reports on assigned chapters. A discussion always arose upon matters thus reported, and the professor endeavored to draw out the opinions of his class without stating his own until the discussion ended, when he would sum up the whole matter. There was much less formality in this conversational method of conducting a class than in ordinary recitations. If the student failed

to do justice to the subject assigned him, the professor filled out the gap by profitable comment.

Some idea of the kind of knowledge required from the advanced class in Institutions may be derived from the following examination papers:

EXAMINATION IN INSTITUTIONS.

Professor Adams—1874.

ROMAN INSTITUTIONS.—1. History of testamentary succession in Roman Law; forms of will. 2. Roman origin of contracts, *Nexum* and *mancipatio*; the historical alliance between contracts and conveyances. 3. *Emphyteusis*, *agri limitanei*, patron and client. 4. Status and contract; show how “the movement of progressive societies has been from status to contract.”

SALIC INSTITUTIONS.—5. The family in the Lex Salica. Probable mode of reckoning relationship; evidences for and against probable distinction of agnates and cognates. 6. Nature of paternal authority in the Lex Salica. Its probable limits. 7. Salic land; tenure of land; Lex Salica, 59, *De Alodis*. Meaning of the word Alod. Illustrate the Salic idea of property as applied to land, by Lex Salica, 58, *De Chrene-cruda*. 8. The Salic contract; its private and judicial application. Illustrate by Lex Salica, 50, *De fides factas*. 9. *Homo in truste dominica*, Lex Salica, 53, and elsewhere. *Vassus* in Lex Salica, 35, 5.

MEROVINGIAN AND CARLOVINGIAN INSTITUTIONS.—10. Outline of all the reforms of Charlemagne. 11. Immunities; to what extent did they alter the relations of citizens or lands to the state? 12. Origin of the feudal courts of *haute et basse justice*; to what earlier courts do they correspond? Give some instances of the law of primogeniture from the French *coutumes*.

EXAMINATION IN INSTITUTIONS.

Professor Adams—1876.

1. To what extent may the family be considered as the source of the state?
2. Define the patriarchal theory, and state arguments for and against it.
3. Nature of the royal power in the Lex Salica. Causes and nature of its subsequent development.
4. What portions of private law may be traced with certainty to the family?
5. What portions, if any, cannot be traced to the family?
6. How does German law compare with Roman law in regard to the history of contract and conveyance?
7. To what extent was land treated as property in the Lex Salica?
8. What is meant by executive and what by judicial procedure in German law?
9. Define, as briefly as possible, the nature of the early Germanic Constitution.
10. Explain with the utmost conciseness the influences which overthrew that constitution, and the nature of the subsequent changes.

EXAMINATION IN INSTITUTIONS.

Professor Adams—June, 1872.

GERMAN LAW.—(1) *Mannitio* and *Bannitio*; (2) *Inquisitio per testes*; (3) *Reipus*; (4) *Scabini*; (5) The Alod, Salic law *de Alodis*; (6) Salic law *de adfathamire*; (7) Judicial reforms of Charlemagne; (8) The Capitulary of Kiersy.

ROMAN LAW.—(9) *Nexum*; (10) *Res Mancipi* and *Res nec Mancipi*; (11) *Manus*; (12) *Universitas juris*; (13) Roman forms of marriage; (14) Early forms of testament; (15) Agnates and cognates; (16) Origin of primogeniture.

FEUDAL LAW.—(17) Essential point of difference between German and French feudalism; (18) The German *Heerschild*; (19) The Golden Bull; (20) Reform of Louis le Gros; (21) Reform of Philip Augustus; (22) Explain why "*Fief et justice n'ont rien de commun*"; (23) What courts of justice were there in feudal France? (24) What was the feudal mode of proof?

EXAMINATION IN ENGLISH HISTORY (MEDIÆVAL).

Professor Adams—1874.

POLITICAL.

1. The conversion of Kent to Christianity; of Northumbria; of the other kingdoms; why two bishops in Kent?
2. End of the Danish invasions under Alfred and Edward the Elder; settlement of Normandy.
3. The claimants to the throne on Edmund's death, and claim of each.
4. Leofric; Siward.
5. The descendants of Ethelred II to the Conquest.
6. Edwin and Morkere.
7. Lanfranc, Hildebrand (his connection with William the Conqueror).
8. The three marriages with the house of Anjou in the reign of Henry I.
9. Bouvines; its effect on English politics.
10. Simon de Montfort; how was he Earl of Leicester; his connection with the royal family.
11. The council of Norham and Edward's decision; criticise it.
12. Edward I and Edward III; compare them.
13. Compare the campaign of 1415 with that of 1346.

LEGAL.

1. The ceorl; thegn; eorl.
2. The hundred-gemot; who composed it? its jurisdiction.
4. Sac and soc; toll and theam; infangentheof.
5. The Curia Regis; its origin and development; its jurisdiction.
6. The exchequer; its officers.
7. Justices in Eyre; where did they sit; decline of sheriff.
8. Assize of Northampton.
9. Magna Charta; its provisions as regards personal liberty.
10. Provisions for enforcing Magna Charta.

EXAMINATION IN AMERICAN COLONIAL HISTORY.

Professor Adams—1875.

1. The London and Plymouth companies and their patents.
2. Causes of Bacon's Rebellion.
3. Jamestown, Williamsburg, Richmond.
4. St. Mary's, Annapolis, Baltimore.
5. Form of government in South Carolina in 1750.
6. Nature of the disputes in Pennsylvania between colonists and proprietary.
7. When and how was representative government established in New York; what steps had the Dutch taken towards establishing self-government?
8. Compare the charters of Virginia, Massachusetts, and Maryland.
9. When and by what means was New Haven consolidated with Connecticut?
10. The new charter of Massachusetts; how did it change the form of government?
11. Population of the different New England colonies in 1650; in 1700; in 1750.

12. Hutchinson's discussion of parliamentary sovereignty with the general court; the positions assumed in argument by each party.
13. What were the precedents for a congress?
14. What governments existed in the Union on the Declaration of Independence?
15. Political and military situation in the winter of 1777-'78.
16. General Greene's campaign against Cornwallis (map).
17. The Articles of Confederation.
18. Diplomatic difficulties resulting from the form of government.
19. Principal opposing interests and parties in the Constitutional Convention.

Upon the basis of Germanic Institutions and Mediæval History, Professor Adams' work was gradually extended so that it embraced the History of England to the seventeenth century, and also the Colonial History of America to the year 1789. In the field first named, such authorities were used as Freeman's Early English History, Knight's, Lingard's, or Pearson's History of England, and Stubbs' Documents Illustrative of the Constitutional History of England. Particular attention was paid to the constitutional and legal aspects of English History. This course, of three hours a week, was made to connect with Professor Torrey's course, in which there was the same number of hours in Modern European History, from the beginning of the seventeenth century. After the withdrawal of Professor Adams from the historical department at Harvard College, in 1877, his work in the English field and in Germanic Institutions was continued by Dr. Ernest Young. Professor Adams' work in the Colonial History of America down to 1789, begun in 1875, and successfully prosecuted with an advanced class three hours a week, was, after one year, delegated to another of his most prominent pupils, Henry Cabot Lodge. Mr. Adams, in place of Colonial History, taught the History of the United States from 1789 to 1840. Both branches of the American work finally came into the hands of Mr. Lodge in 1877, after Mr. Adams' withdrawal, and were continued for one year, when Mr. Lodge himself retired from the teaching of History to the editorship of the International Review, and subsequently to the pursuit of present politics. An enduring result, however, of Mr. Lodge's historical work at Harvard is his "Short History of the English Colonies in North America" and his volume of "Historical Studies," both of which books are undoubtedly the elaboration of materials collected while an instructor. The American line of historical teaching at Harvard was continued by Mr. Hoague and Dr. Freeman Snow. It is now in the hands of Dr. Albert Hart and Dr. Edward Channing.

PRESENT STATUS OF HISTORY AT HARVARD.

In what has been said hitherto the writer has endeavored to describe the work of the earlier representatives of the historical department at Harvard rather than the courses given by the present generation of teachers. Justice to contemporaries requires at least a brief review of the present condition of the work which, since the retirement of Pro-

fessor Torrey and the death of his successor, Professor Gurney, in 1886, is left entirely in the hands of younger Harvard. Into better or worthier hands this work could not have fallen. For years some of these young professors have been in training for their present responsibilities. In deed, for a long time before the recent transition was made, the chief burden of practical teaching and lecturing had begun to rest upon men like Professors Macvane, Emerton, Young, and Doctors Hart and Channing. They had already introduced new courses and new methods of instruction, so that gradually the historical department was being transformed.

If one turns from an examination of old catalogues to the courses of historical instruction announced for the current year, 1886-'87, he will be strongly impressed with the remarkable advance made during the past decade. In the number, variety, extent, and attractiveness of the historical work now offered at Harvard University, that institution rivals a German university. The American student no longer absolutely needs to go abroad for thorough instruction in European and American History. He can find it in Cambridge, Mass. All the methods which characterize the most advanced historical work and all the facilities for special research in libraries that a student could reasonably demand are in existence there.

In this chapter, which has already exceeded its intended limits, it is impossible to do more than to glance rapidly at the character of the instruction in history now afforded at Harvard University. The most striking feature is the increased opportunity for special advanced study and original research. No less than five different fields are now open for real seminary work at Harvard. Professor Emerton,¹ who early represented the seminary method at Harvard, conducts a class of advanced students in the investigation of topics pertaining to the union of church and state under the administration of Charles the Great. Assistant Professor Young has a similar course for the special study of the early history of institutions. Professor Macvane, who is Mr. Gurney's successor as university professor, is guiding advanced inquiries concerning the social condition of Western Europe in the Eighteenth century. Dr. Hart, a pupil of Von Holst, is giving a decided impetus to the seminary idea at Harvard by original studies in American constitutional history. Dr. Channing is highly successful in directing researches in American colonial and in modern diplomatic history. The special work and methods of Drs. Hart² and Channing are described in greater detail in a chapter on American History in our Schools and Colleges,

¹ See Professor Emerton's valuable chapter on the practical method in the Higher Historical Instruction in Dr. G. S. Hall's Pedagogical Library, Vol. I, pp. 31-60. Cf. Johns Hopkins University Studies, II, 90-93.

² Consult Dr. Hart's article on methods of teaching American history in Dr. G. S. Hall's Pedagogical Library, Vol. I, pp. 1-30. Cf. Johns Hopkins University Studies, Vol. II, 59-63. Dr. Hart is about to establish a class library.

contributed to this report by Dr. Francis N. Thorpe, Fellow of the University of Pennsylvania.

In the official account of the graduate department of Harvard for 1886-'87, it is said that students in the above courses receive the personal attention of their instructors, who will advise and assist them in their chosen fields of research, and in the preparation of suitable theses. In some of the courses offered under this head, special attention will be given to practice in the investigation of original sources. It is intended to make the work useful both to future teachers and historical investigators, and to professional or business men who may wish to become thoroughly familiar with some part of the field of history, or to acquire the ability to weigh and examine historical evidences.

The regular class courses of historical instruction show a steady advance, with a constant widening of the field of study, and at the same time a manifest tendency toward greater specialization. Professor Torrey's course in modern European history is now in the hands of two men, Professor Macvane and Assistant Professor Young. Mr. Macvane has this year been relieved of his introductory or fact course in general European history by an additional instructor, Mr. Weaver. He himself continues to develop his own attractive course on constitutional government in England and the United States. Mr. Young specializes more particularly upon the early constitutional and legal history of England, and also represents Roman law and the history of institutions. Drs. Hart and Channing are specializing more and more in the American field. Professor Emerton's work in mediæval and ecclesiastical history has taken wider range, and at the same time more special points of view. His courses now embrace (1) the conflict of Christianity with paganism, also the origin and development of the Roman primacy to its alliance with the Holy Roman Empire; (2) the mediæval church, with especial reference to its effect upon public life and upon intellectual and social progress; and (3) a course given in alternate years on the era of the reformation in Europe, from the rise of Italian humanism to the close of the Council of Trent.

THE HISTORICAL METHOD IN ECONOMICS.

A very noteworthy feature in the economic courses now given at Harvard is the prominence of the historical method. Professor Dunbar lectures upon the economic history of Europe and America since the seven years' war, and also upon the history of financial legislation in the United States. Assistant Professor Laughlin considers the economic effects of land tenures in England, Ireland, France, and Germany—a subject, from the standpoint of economic history, the most important in the whole field. Assistant Professor Taussig lectures upon the history of economic theory and upon the history of tariff legislation in the United States. Advanced study and original research in economic matters are encouraged by all three of these gentlemen. Conspicuous

progress has been made by the economic department in the development of class-room (or seminary) libraries. The creation of suggestive environment and of real laboratories of economic science is clearly in the minds of the leaders of this active and flourishing school.

Perhaps the most significant of all new departures at Harvard University, is the recent institution of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. The sum of \$15,000 was given for this purpose by Mr. Thayer, of Boston, and the income is applied to the support of the magazine, which is in the highest degree creditable to Harvard University as well as to the editor, Professor Dunbar. The Journal is not the organ of any particular school of opinion. It does not profess to be either conservative or radical, orthodox or heterodox, English or German. It is simply an American Journal of economic science. It holds fast the best ideas in economic experience, and is ready for new light upon the economic conditions of society. The attitude of the Journal toward the historical method in economic research is most encouraging. Already one member of the historical department at Harvard, Dr. Hart, has contributed a valuable paper to the *Quarterly*, namely, a study upon the disposition made of the public lands in the United States. This comity between history and economics will doubtless grow from more to more. The two subjects are naturally allied, and can never be absolutely separated in American university life with its present tendencies. Without indulging extreme or one-sided views, the writer believes it the destiny of history to become more economic, and of economics to become more historical in both object and method. History has too long neglected the ways and means, the practical side of social and political life, and economics have too long neglected the simple facts.

LIBRARY FACILITIES AT HARVARD.

The most important factor in the constitution of an historical department is the proper adjustment of relations with the college or university library. It is one of the prime motives of the present report to point out from the best known examples what such relations ought to be. The promotion of historical study in any college or university is absolutely dependent upon the use of books. The possession of a good historical library and easy access to its shelves on the part of advanced students as well as of their professors are fundamental conditions of progress which Harvard University early recognized. From her experience other institutions can learn a valuable lesson in library administration.

In 1877 Harvard University showed its sovereign sense in appointing for its general librarian Mr. Justin Winsor, whose experience in the development of the public library in Boston had proved as epoch-making for that institution and America as was that of the Italian librarian, Antonio Panizzi, for England and the British Museum. Indeed, Mr. Winsor should be regarded as an American renaissance of this type of humanistic culture. English librarians have long recognized this Ameri-

can as the master of their profession. In his new position at Cambridge Mr. Winsor became the champion of the policy, still somewhat novel in conservative institutions, that books are to be used and not hoarded. He recognized that one of the chief functions of a librarian is to increase the efficiency and circulation of his library. Accordingly greater freedom was allowed in admitting trustworthy persons to the shelves. But the most striking policy was that of permitting the small reservations of books in the alcoves of the general reading-room, which reservations were to be used in connection with class-work in historical and other courses. Each instructor was allowed to select for his own reservation those books that were absolutely essential to the conduct of his class-work, and the instructor's name was posted above his own collection, so that students might know where to find books to which they had been referred for private reading. Of course a certain comity had to be observed among both instructors and students in the use of these reserved collections. Under circumstances men were allowed to take out certain books for overnight use or for a longer interval.

The system has worked most admirably. It has converted the Harvard University library into a perfect hive of class libraries. One needs to see the system in practical operation in order fully to appreciate its advantages and adaptability. The architecture of the general reading-room, with its central nave and chapel-like alcoves, where various department reservations seem to be praying together for more room, does not readily permit of pictorial illustration. The present arrangements are regarded merely as provisional. In the near future these book-reservations will doubtless swarm from their present contracted quarters into a great variety of duplicate collections in class-rooms or seminary-libraries.

The following tables, taken from Mr. Winsor's most recent report, 1886, will serve to give some idea of the increase since 1879, in the circulation of books belonging to the university library.

	1879-'80.	1880-'81.	1881-'82.	1882-'83.	1883-'84.	1884-'85.	1885-'86.
1. Books lent out.....	41,936	45,481	48,194	48,231	48,655	52,322	60,195
2. Used in the building.....	7,812	11,724	10,498	8,654	9,047	9,433	8,816
3. Overnight use of reserved books.....	10,506	11,872	12,891	12,678	11,399	13,791	18,505
Total (excluding No. 3. which is included in No. 1).....	49,798	57,205	58,692	56,885	57,702	61,755	69,011
Officers of instruction reserving books	35	38	41	44	48	48	56
No of books reserved	3,330	3,418	4,251	4,316	4,782	5,230	5,840

“The increase in the number of books reserved—of whose hall-use no record is kept—has a tendency,” says Mr. Winsor, “to decrease the number of volumes used in the building, of whose use record is made.”

Sunday use.

	1880-'81.	1881-'82.	1882-'83.	1883-'84.	1884-'85.	1885-'86.
Number of Sundays open.....	37	36	36	36	37	37
Persons using.....	1,846	2,067	2,268	2,448	2,631	2,842
Average.....	46	57	63	68	71	76
Highest number.....	64	91	92	95	105	108

"It will also be seen by the following tables that the use of 'admission-cards,' by which students have access for investigation to special classes of the books at the shelves, is steadily gaining in favor, judging from the increased frequency of such use:"

Admission cards.

	1880-'81.	1881-'82.	1882-'83.	1883-'84.	1884-'85.	1885-'86.
History.....	31	49	46	45	52	68
Science.....	14	26	16	18	12	14
Art (including music).....	12	22	14	12	14	16
Literature.....	12	36	42	37	42	49
Classics.....	5	49	36	42	53	52
Philosophy.....	5	6	5	6	8	9
Theology.....	4	4	3	8	9	12
Political economy.....	2	8	5	8	12	44
Total students.....	85	200	167	176	202	264
Times of use.....	870	2,542	3,340	3,520	4,020	5,820

"The college teachers who have students under instruction in the methods of research are still given such facilities as the Library building affords for the accommodation of their classes; but the advantages of the building are in this direction far from what they should be."

Students' use of the library.

Students of—	1874-'75.		1879-'80.		1883-'84.		1884-'85.		1885-'86.	
	Whole No.	No. taking books.	Whole No.	No. taking books.	Whole No.	No. taking books.	Whole No.	No. taking books.	Whole No.	No. taking books.
Divinity.....	20	16	23	23	21	21	26	26	25	25
Law.....	139	63	165	119	146	118	153	122	154	136
Scientific.....	29	21	16	15	26	17	28	21	22	18
Resident grad.....	55	18	66	40	68	51	70	52	64	62
Senior class.....	152	109	171	151	209	188	191	170	232	214
Junior class.....	159	96	201	168	195	171	234	216	236	228
Sophom. class.....	208	124	196	163	248	210	256	220	232	216
Freshm. class.....	197	108	245	160	253	202	255	205	258	201
Totals.....	959	555	1,083	839	1,166	978	1,213	1,032	1,231	1,100

“The percentage of users among the undergraduates has risen during recent years as follows:”

	1874-'75.	1879-'80.	1883-'84.	1884-'85.	1885-'86.
For Seniors	71	88	90	90	92
For Juniors	60	83	88	93	96
For Sophomores	59	83	85	86	93
For Freshmen	54	65	80	80	78

“The result is this: Eleven years ago 57 per cent. of the students, and during the past year almost 90 per cent., used the Library.

“These statements do not cover the use of ‘reserved books’—a system not in use in 1874-'75,—a considerable number of the users of which never take other books from the Library.”

Besides the constant use of book-reservations in the alcoves of the general reading-room, there is another liberal feature in the administration of the library at Harvard which early attracted the attention of the writer. Some years ago Professor Emerton¹ was allowed by Mr. Winsor to establish an historical class in a small room immediately adjoining the book-stack or main repository of the library. This proximity of students to books is one of the most powerful of educational forces, provided a teacher knows how to improve the situation, as Professor Emerton manifestly did. The class quickly discovered the same capacity.

For the past year or two Dr. Edward Channing has been in the habit of gathering his students about him in a convenient corner of the “stack” or book-room, on that floor which is devoted to American history. Here at their very elbows, so to speak, the students have a collection of *Americana* that has but few rivals in the United States. Dr. Channing has, moreover, perfected arrangements whereby the resources of the Massachusetts Historical Society, the Athenæum, the Boston Public and the State Library are made serviceable to the wants of his men. In addition, the unpublished records in the State House at Boston and the library of the Law School in Cambridge are drawn upon, so that the little company which meets in the corner of the Harvard book-stack has learned to command all the libraries in the neighborhood. The writer regrets that he is unable to present any pictorial illustration of this historical “corner.” It is at once too small and too large to be photographed. It would need the light and space of all the libraries in Boston.

¹ Professor Emerton well expressed the true use of a college library when he said, in his article on The practical Method in Higher Historical Instruction (see Hall's Pedagogical Library, vol. i, 59): “What the laboratory is to physical science, that the library must be to moral science. The library must become, not a store-house of books, but a place for work. Books must exist not so much to be read as to be studied, compared, digested, made to serve in the development of new truth by the method of practice with them.”

THE HARVARD HISTORICAL SOCIETY.

One of the pleasantest experiences of the writer in Cambridge was that of meeting, in the spring of 1879, at the house of the librarian of Harvard University, a little company of advanced historical students, with their instructors. It was the Harvard Historical Society, which owes its origin and continuous development to the energy of such men as Professor Emerton, Dr. Taussig, and Dr. Channing, and its moral and social support to older scholars like Professor Torrey, Dr. Charles Deane, and Mr. Justin Winsor. The society is a novel combination of youth, early manhood, and ripened experience. The purpose of the society is the discussion of original historical papers and the fostering of public interest in historical subjects by the occasional delivery of a public lecture. For this purpose specialists are sometimes invited to Cambridge. While the cultivation of historical science is the main object of the association, the social element is by no means neglected. Indeed, it was this side which especially attracted the writer, as he has already intimated. After listening to a formal paper or lecture, it is not unusual for the society to adjourn by invitation to a professor's house for the informal discussion of other subjects. Sometimes both sessions are held at a private house. Such a healthful organization as the Harvard Historical Society deserves to live and to multiply.

THE NARRATIVE AND CRITICAL HISTORY OF AMERICA.

Writing upon History at Harvard University, one would neglect the most remarkable illustration of his subject if he should fail to mention that great co-operative undertaking, the Narrative and Critical History of America, edited by Mr. Justin Winsor. If a striking proof were needed of the importance of commanding the resources of historical literature in the writing of history, this colossal work, which masses the best results of four centuries of book-making, would afford that proof. Here is a scientific enterprise, directed by the librarian of Harvard University, and bringing into active use all that bibliographical information and special knowledge derived from a lifetime spent among books and in historical pursuits, an enterprise which solely by this editor's wide acquaintance with men and materials has brought into intimate co-operation with his own work in Cambridge the historical talent not only of specialists in Harvard University, but of the whole country, together with contributions from every special library of American History in this or other lands. This is a masterly performance. Such a work, so nobly conceived and so skillfully executed, reflects the highest honor upon Harvard University and its scholarly librarian. The man who can thus devise and successfully carry on such a vast literary undertaking, in the midst of administrative duties by no means light in a library like that at Cambridge, deserves to be recognized as the head of the historical profession at Harvard University.

The American Historical Association wisely showed its national appreciation of Mr. Winsor by electing him as its president, immediately succeeding Mr. George Bancroft, the father of American history.

The general idea of the *Narrative and Critical History of America* is indicated by the title. Each important division of the work is treated in two ways, (1) in a descriptive manner, for the general reader; (2) in a critical manner, for the scholar, with primary reference to the sources of information. It is this latter portion of the task which shows, in its fullest and freest scope, the editorial talent of Harvard's librarian. A thousand and one skillful bibliographical touches by Mr. Winsor indicate how he has improved and supplemented the special work of his co-laborers. Only an historian who is also a librarian, or who commands the best and fullest resources of historical science in a librarian's environment, could do such work. It illustrates better than anything the writer can say, or the artist depict, the importance of a well-equipped library for historical study and scholarly investigation. The library of Harvard University is a veritable laboratory, not only for its active historical department, but also for the most original and comprehensive historical work now in progress in these United States.

The scope of the *Narrative and Critical History of America* is more than continental. It embraces Canada, Mexico, Central and South America, and even the West Indies, as well as this country. The work as now planned will include eight royal octavo volumes, which are thus characterized: Vol. I, *America before Columbus*; Vol. II, *Spanish Discoveries and Conquests in America*; Vol. III, *English Discoveries and Settlements in America*; Vol. IV, *French Discoveries and Settlements in America*; Vol. V, *the French and English in North America, from the English Revolution to the Peace of Paris, 1689-1763*; Vol. VI, *the American Revolution, 1763-1783*; Vol. VII, *the United States, 1783-1850*; Vol. VIII, *Canada and the American Outgrowths of Continental Europe*. Volumes II, III, IV, and V are already published, and Vol. VI is well advanced. The first volume on Prehistoric America will be the last to appear, because of the present activity in that field of research and of the necessity of prudent delay in preparing the editorial introduction to the entire work. It is needless to say that Mr. Winsor has made extensive contributions to each of the volumes already published.

The method of preparing this colossal history is simply the application of economic principles to historical investigation. Division of labor and co-operation, under the skillful direction of a master-workman, are as legitimate in the writing of history as in the building of a cathedral. Indeed, church and state and the civilization of the world have been reared by masterly combinations of individual forces. It is not unreasonable that historians should imitate the methods which have entered into the making of actual history. Hence it is that some historical writers have attempted the imperial method of universal conquest in their

individual works; while others have been satisfied with kingdoms, principalities, or pocket republics. Historical writing in America will follow the democratic and social drift of our times. The world is surely becoming more co-operative, if not less selfish, more constitutional, while still autocratic in corporate forms. By and by, it will perhaps appear that for one man to attempt to write the history of the world is to repeat the glorious folly of Alexander; even to essay the entire history of one's own country, in an authoritative way, may yet be thought a mild, possibly harmless, reassertion in literary form of the absolutism of Bourbon kings, who identified their own individual views with the state itself. On the other hand, to combine individual forces in the writing of history upon such co-operative and constitutional principles that individual rights are conserved while the general good is promoted, indicates progress in historical science worthy of these modern times. To represent economic and republican principles in the very constitution of American history is Mr. Winsor's conspicuous merit and Harvard's greatest honor.

757 ED, NO. 2—4

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY AT YALE UNIVERSITY.

SCHOLASTIC BEGINNINGS.

In an address before the Cornell University, June 21, 1871, Professor D. C. Gilman, then of Yale College, made a suggestion which deserves to be repeated in the interest of the history of American education. "It will be a curious inquiry," he said, "for some philosophical writer on the intellectual progress of this country to ascertain what were the themes, the text-books, the methods of instruction and tuition which prevailed in the American colleges prior to the Revolution; what sort of instruction at Cambridge filled Samuel and John Adams with their notions of civil liberty; what sort of culture at New Haven brought Jonathan Edwards to his lofty rank among the theologians of this country and of Scotland; what discipline at Princeton fitted James Madison to exert such an influence upon the formation of the Constitution; and what academic drill at Columbia College, in New York, made Alexander Hamilton the founder of our national credit and our financial system. When that inquiry is made, there is a curious waif among the archives in the college library at New Haven which will show on what spare diet strong men have been fed, and which will exhibit more forcibly than volumes of speculation the poverty of the intellectual forces once at work in comparison with those now opening. I refer to a worn and almost illegible manuscript which contains the notes of lectures which were given in Harvard College two hundred years ago, to the class of 1668, just thirty years after the foundation of the college. The student, whose jottings are thus handed down, was Abraham Pierson, who afterward became the first president of Yale College, and thus the transplanter of Harvard lore to the favoring soil of a sister colony. There is a motto twice written in the volume, ending with words which it is amusing to see in that connection: '*Hoc tantum scio me nihil scire.*'"

This book of student-notes, taken at Harvard College by the man who was chosen, in 1701, to be the first rector, or president, of Yale College, instituted that year, is interesting as connecting Yale with the scholastic system of early Harvard, mentioned in the first chapter on "History

at Harvard University." These notes, described by Professor Franklin B. Dexter, in his *Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College* (p. 61), and in a private letter to the writer, relate to lectures on logic, ethics, metaphysics, physics, and divinity. They were probably taken in the usual scholastic way, from dictation; and represent the sum and substance of Harvard wisdom in 1668, as faithfully as a book of *Loci Communes* would represent the academic teaching of the Middle Ages. Rector Pierson's note-books, possibly containing Harvard "Common Places,"—may or may not have served him as a basis for his own class instruction at Yale. The fact that he preserved them carefully throughout his entire life is presumptive evidence that he valued his scholastic inheritance as truly as does the Yale College library, which has preserved the manuscript down to the present day.

Unfortunately for the purposes of the present writer, the Harvard note-book of Yale's first president has only a negative value. It does not indicate that the subject of history occupied any place in his system of knowledge. And yet, in 1642-'43, Harvard College certainly gave its students one hour a week of history, on Saturday, immediately after dinner. This dyspeptic course was fortunately confined to the winter season, and gave place in summer to the study of botany, or "the nature of plants." Probably history continued to be taught in 1668, when Pierson was a student there; but it is altogether to his credit that he took no notes upon the subject, if the course was still given at the old hour, from 1 to 2 o'clock, on the only half-holiday in the week. Such preliminary training in history would hardly incline a young man to prosecute that branch of study as a graduate course. If, in after years, he should happen to be called upon to organize a course of instruction in some other college, he would probably elect for his own chair, "Divinity Catechetically," or any other Harvard course, sooner than history. At any rate, there is no available evidence that Rector Pierson repeated the Harvard experiment on Saturday afternoon.

The study of history in some form, biblical or classical, may have been introduced into the curriculum of Yale College in its earliest years; but the first formal recognition of the subject was (to quote the authority of Professor F. B. Dexter) "the appointment of President Stiles to a professorship of ecclesiastical history in 1778. He held his professorship till his death (in 1795), and after him it was held by Professor Kingsley, from 1805 to 1817. Dr. Stiles lectured regularly on history, and also introduced Dr. Priestley's *Chart of History* as a text-book. There is abundant evidence that his interpretation of the field of ecclesiastical history was a very wide one; it was simply that he, an ecclesiastic, taught general history. I should be very loth to say that this professorship was the first introduction of history into our curriculum; but I do not know that the earlier stages of its career have ever been traced."

CLASSICAL HISTORY.

The regular courses of instruction at Yale College were not printed until 1822; so that there is for the writer no available record of the standing of historical studies before that time. Judging from the actual status in that year, considerable attention must have been given to classical history through the medium of ancient historians and of Adam's Roman Antiquities. Yale College has always been a stronghold of classical culture. President Barnard, of Columbia College, in his annual report for 1872 (pp. 32-33) speaks of "the state of things which existed in Yale College, between 1820 and 1830 * * * from personal knowledge." He says: "The amount of classical reading in those days was vastly greater than it is at present. In them were accomplished all of the two large volumes of Dazell's *Græca Majora*, embracing Xenophon's 'Anabasis' and 'Memorabilia,' with large extracts from Herodotus, Thucydides, Lysias and Socrates, Plato, Aristotle and Longinus, and the poets Sophocles and Euripides. And to this are to be added several books of Homer's *Iliad*, and the oration of Demosthenes on the Crown. In Latin the reading embraced eight books of Livy's History; the entire volume of the poetical works of Horace, including the odes, satires, epistles, and the Art of Poetry; Cicero de Officiis, de Senectute, de Amicitia, de Oratore, and de Republica; and, finally, Tacitus, the History, Agricola, and De Moribus Germanorum. And besides this, the whole of Adam's Roman Antiquities was read, from cover to cover."

It appears from Yale catalogues that this ancient and well-approved manual of Dr. Adam, rector of the Edinburgh High School, was a freshman study down to 1847. During the first half of the nineteenth century probably more students, at both Harvard and Yale, were fed upon that Scotch diet than upon any other historical material. It was plain, substantial fare. When one contrasts the old-fashioned manuals of Adam and Eschenburg with the wafer-like "primers" which are now everywhere in vogue, it is not surprising that a knowledge of ancient politics is dying out in American schools. In these days, when teachers and students alike are rushing toward modern studies in history and political science, it is refreshing to see such a wholesome treatment of Roman constitutional law as that represented in the Notes on Roman History, by Ambrose Tighe, a recent classical tutor at Yale College, or such an elective as that offered to Seniors by Professor Tarbell on Aristotle's Politics. A scholarly balance between ancient and modern history is likely to be maintained by the faculty of Yale. The classical department in that institution has always shown a disposition to represent classical history through the medium of classical historians. Thucydides, Livy, Tacitus, and other historical writers are read in the light of modern critical scholarship; and a fair amount of time is still given to English text-books of Greek and Roman history, including classical antiquities.

HISTORY OF ROMAN LAW.

One of the best contributions to the historical cause by the classical department at Yale was the impulse given to the study of Roman law, from a historical point of view, by the late Professor Hadley, of the Greek department. He prepared a course of lectures upon Roman jurisprudence, for the benefit of students at Yale College—a course which he gave, in 1870-'71, to students at Harvard. This course was an introduction of American students, in an academic way, to a knowledge of the true greatness of old Rome, which consists in her enduring system of law—a system which Dean Milman says the Christian Church despaired of rendering more equitable. The idea of teaching Roman law in a regular class course was taken up at Harvard by the late Professor Gurney, who began historical work in connection with the Latin department at Cambridge. Professor Ernest Young also entered the field of Roman law, and continues the work at Harvard to this day, in connection with the historical department. At Yale the subject of Roman law is now taught to law students by Professor A. S. Wheeler, of the Sheffield Scientific School, and by Professor Simeon E. Baldwin. Academic interest in historical jurisprudence is steadily increasing in America. Columbia College, in whose law school it was once found impossible to awaken interest in Roman law, now has a regular academic lecturer upon this subject—Professor Munroe Smith, of the School of Political Science. At the University of Rochester the subject is represented by Professor W. C. Morey, who has lately issued an excellent historical manual on *The Outlines of Roman Law*, admirably supplementing the pioneer work of Professor Hadley.

By means of Professor Hadley's excellent manual the subject of Roman law has been quietly fostered at the Johns Hopkins University, among undergraduate students, during recent years. To encourage this study, Professor James Bryce, Regius Professor of Roman Law in the University of Oxford, was invited, in 1883, to give a short course of lectures in Baltimore upon his Oxford specialty; and now, at last, Mr. G. H. Emmott, a graduate of Cambridge, England, and for seven years lecturer on Roman law at Owen's College, Manchester, is giving regular and systematic instruction throughout the year to a large class of graduate students in Baltimore. The writer mentions such facts in this connection because, at least, the Baltimore demand for this kind of historical teaching is the direct outgrowth of the influence of Professor Hadley.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Before tracing the origin and development of historical teaching, as independent of the classical department at Yale, it is worth while to cast another side-light upon its early curriculum. In President Barnard's Annual Report of Columbia College for 1873, there is an inter-

esting chapter on "Progressive Changes in the Scholastic System." He describes, on page 23, the importance once attached to geography at Yale. "Morse's octavo volume of six hundred pages was professedly read to the last syllable. It is true that the lessons assigned were enormously long—the contents of twenty or thirty pages being required at a single recitation; but the books were completed, and examinations were held upon them, not only at the end of the year or session to which they belonged, but twice subsequently; once in the spring of the junior year, when all the subjects of the course from the beginning up to that time were examined upon, and again at the final examination of the senior class, in which every subject in the entire course was again passed in review. This, at least, was the case in the college in which the undersigned received his education; and it is believed to have been the common usage."

Without defending or condemning this old-fashioned system of examinations and recitations from voluminous text-books, the writer would simply inquire: What is there in the modern system of historical instruction, as practiced in most American colleges, which supplies such a broad geographical basis for the study of history and politics as did that ancient treatise by Jedediah Morse? If any modern teacher of physical and historical geography thinks he is doing work of remarkable excellence, let him look at that old book, once "read to the last syllable" at Yale College. While not advocating a new edition or the re-introduction of Morse's ponderous work into any college curriculum, one may reasonably urge that something like Freeman's Historical Geography should take its place.

GENERAL HISTORY.

General history, as distinguished from classical, was not absent from the curriculum of Yale College in 1822, when the publication of courses of instruction first began. At that time Tytler's History was required for the third term of junior year. Tytler's General History, Ancient and Modern, was the approved text-book at Yale, as at Harvard, for many years. Dr. Peabody, in Cambridge, was teaching Tytler to freshmen in 1832, one hour a week, and the book survived at Yale for an entire generation. As early as 1822 the first volume of Kent's Commentaries was taught to the senior class during the first and second terms. Thus we find germs of history and political science planted together by the classical wayside in Yale College; but there was no further development until 1847, when Theodore Woolsey, valedictorian of the class of 1820, became president of the college. In the first year of his administration, ancient history (probably one-half of Tytler's General History) was taught to the junior class during their third term, and modern history (probably the second half of Tytler) to the seniors during their first term.

POLITICAL SCIENCE.

The process of development began with Dr. Woolsey's own specialty, "Political Philosophy," during the second term of the senior year. This course consisted mainly of lectures by the president on International Law and Political Science. Wayland's Political Economy was also taught to seniors. In 1849-'50 the "Law of Nations" became a specific course, as distinguished from "Political Philosophy." The full development of these early courses of Dr. Woolsey's may be seen in his published treatises on International Law and Political Science. The former is in general use as a text-book in our American colleges, and the latter is well known in the literature of scientific politics. It is interesting to reflect that Dr. Woolsey at Yale College was year after year gathering useful materials for his great works during the very same period in which Francis Lieber, in the tranquil seclusion of his college-home in Columbia, S. C., was elaborating his now famous treatises on Political Ethics, Legal and Political Hermeneutics, Civil Liberty, and Self-Government. It is still more interesting to note that the great northern and the great southern tributaries to American political science were brought together when Theodore Woolsey edited, in 1874, a revision of Lieber's Civil Liberty and Self-Government. Both of these men were trained in Germany—Woolsey at Bonn, Lieber at Berlin and Jena.

HISTORY CONTINUED.

In 1853-'54, the courses in history and political science at Yale College were somewhat modified. Pütz and Arnold's Ancient History was introduced as a text-book for the freshman class during the second term. This text-book, which is an American adaptation of the German Pütz, long a famous authority in German gymnasia, is not remembered by Yale alumni of thirty years' standing with any considerable affection. Men were compelled to learn the book by heart and recite it verbatim. Probably no worse method of teaching history was ever invented. It was against this memorizing of mere "words, words" that Andrew D. White revolted when a student; and this very revolt led him, afterward, in 1857, at the University of Michigan, to take a fresh and original departure in historical teaching, thus leading the way to great changes of method in this country. In 1863, Liddell's Rome was substituted for Pütz and Arnold. In the senior year, the president gave one lecture a week the first term, in connection with Guizot's History of Civilization. During the second term, he gave his courses in Political Science two hours a week. The third term, Professor Bissell met the class daily in a course on the Constitution of the United States. In 1855-'56, Lieber's work on Civil Liberty and Self-Government was added to the course in Political Science, and the number of hours in the first and second terms was doubled.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

Before 1861 theological students had enjoyed lectures on the History of Missions; but after that date Professor George P. Fisher began to give instruction in Church History, with an historical survey of the old or preparatory dispensation in its relation to Christianity; the establishment and spread of Christianity (including missions and persecutions, ecclesiastical polity (including the rise and rule of the papacy, and the reformation); and the history of Christian life and worship. Among the literary results of these lecture courses are Dr. Fisher's valuable and suggestive works on the Beginnings of Christianity and the History of the Reformation. For many years Dr. Leonard Bacon gave lectures to the theological students upon American Church History, more especially upon select topics in New England Church History—a fertile field for historical inquiry. One of the fruits of this pioneer work was Dr. Bacon's *Genesis of the New England Churches*.

PROFESSOR ARTHUR M. WHEELER.

In 1865, Mr. Arthur M. Wheeler, who had previously been a tutor in Greek, became professor of history. His lectures were a marked success from the very outset. Graduates of Yale, whom the writer has encountered in historical courses at German universities and as students at the Johns Hopkins University, speak of Mr. Wheeler's courses with admiration. In 1868, modern history, beginning with the reformation, was offered by the professor to seniors for two terms. The first term, there was an optional, four exercises a week, in Bancroft's *History of the United States*. Hallam's *Constitutional History*, with lectures, was taught as a required course during the second term. It is interesting to note that Professor Wheeler has retained this admirable work of Hallam in his English course. This part of his work has now developed into two of the most popular senior electives. One course of two hours a week, throughout the college year, is devoted to the origin and development of the English constitution. Besides lectures, the course includes a study of Taswell-Langmead's or Stubbs' *Constitutional History*, and Bright's or Green's *History of England*, Volume I. Such work affords an excellent introduction to the study of law. A second elective, three hours a week, second term, is now offered to seniors by Professor Wheeler. It is devoted to the history of England during the Tudor and Stuart periods, when the conflict between self-government and arbitrary power was finally settled. Here, also, lectures are supplemented by the required use of standard authorities, such as Hallam's *Constitutional History of England* and Bright's or Green's *History*, Vol. II, with numerous books of reference. Professor Wheeler early introduced the system of a working library for his classes, and, for its proper equipment, raised by subscription a considerable sum of money. No system of historical instruction is more efficient than that which combines vol-

untary reading with required work and with suggestive lectures. The best elements of the old and new methods of historical training have been happily united at Yale.

After the institution of a distinct chair of American History, in 1877, Professor Wheeler began to develop an optional course on modern European history for seniors, four hours a week during the first half year. The foundation of this course was laid by the required study of Hallam's *Middle Ages*, for which it still remains difficult to find an adequate substitute in the English language. During the year 1885-'86 this optional course in Hallam was represented by Mr. E. G. Bourne, a recent graduate from Yale, holding a scholarship, and now giving "A View of Trade and Industry in Europe in the Middle Ages," which is a course of lectures in Historical Economics, one hour a week, to graduate-students. Professor Wheeler's own work in European history is now in modern fields, and more especially in the history of the French Revolution of 1789 or in the history of Europe since 1815. In this modern course for seniors, two hours a week for a half-year, he employs such authorities as Tocqueville's *Old Régime*, Mignet's or Taine's *History of the French Revolution*, and Fyffe's *History of Modern Europe*, or Müller's *Political History of Recent Times*, and Walpole's *History of England since 1815*.

This general plan of work in European history, specializing as it does upon modern Europe and the constitutional history of England, impresses a student of methods in teaching as one of the most sensible, solid, and practically useful now in operation.

PROFESSOR FRANKLIN B. DEXTER.

In 1877, Mr. Franklin B. Dexter, the newly appointed Larned Professor of American History, conducted the optional course in Bancroft's *History of the United States*, two hours a week, through the second term of senior year; a course which he varied, in 1879, by the use of Eliot's *History of the United States* and Frothingham's *Rise of the Republic*, and, still later, by the use of Lodge's *Short History of the English Colonies in North America*, Von Holst's *Constitutional History of the United States*, and Johnston's *American Politics*. He now has a course of two hours a week, the first half-year, on American colonial history to 1765; and, the second half, the same number of hours upon the history of the United States, 1765-1865. He also gives, the second half-year, one hour a week to a short but comprehensive course on American history in general. All of Professor Dexter's work, like that of Professor Wheeler's, is elective. He conducts his various courses upon the topical method, prescribing to individual students passages in various authors, besides the regular class study of such required texts as Eliot and Johnston. He has printed lists of topics for individual study; the authors that are to be consulted are reserved in the library

for class use. Good results have followed this excellent method of independent and co-operative study in connection with regular class exercises and frequent examinations upon required subjects. Among the fruits of this professorship of American history¹ are Professor Dexter's original study of "The Pilgrim Church and Plymouth Colony," with a critical essay on the sources of information, published in the third volume of Mr. Justin Winsor's *Narrative and Critical History of America*, pp. 257-294, and various valuable monographs on New England and college history, notably, *New Haven in 1784*; *The History of Connecticut as illustrated in her Town Names*; *The Founding of Yale College*; *Governor Elihu Yale*; *Memoranda respecting Edward Whalley and William Goffe*; *Sketch of the Life and Writings of John Davenport*; *Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College*; &c.

Further details upon history at Yale University will be given in Chapter VIII, on American History in Schools, Colleges, and Universities, contributed to this report by Dr. F. N. Thorpe, of Philadelphia.

¹ Professor Dexter's department of American history was strengthened in 1885-'86, by Professor Richards' course of two hours a week, for a half year upon the *Colonial History of New England to 1689*.

CHAPTER III.

HISTORY AT COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

Columbia College, in New York, may fairly claim the honor of being the first American institution in America to recognize History as worthy of a professorial chair. The institution was founded, as King's College, under the royal patronage of George II, in the year 1754. Arrangements appear to have been made in the original faculty of arts for the teaching of Law and History.

PROFESSOR JOHN VARDILL, 1775.

As early as 1773 we find "Johannes Vardill, A.M., Socius," appointed professor of Natural Law (*Jus Naturalis*). In 1775 he was made professor of history and languages. Undoubtedly, both appointments represented the revival of the old English connection between law, history, and the classics. As the *Jus Naturalis*, then taught in European universities, was but the continuity of Roman ideas of philosophical jurisprudence, so history was regarded, primarily, as the history of Greece and Rome and as a mere supplement to classical culture.

John Vardill was a graduate of King's College, and was the very first alumnus of that institution to receive an appointment as an instructor. He seems to have been a favorite pupil of Dr. Cooper, the president of the college, and to have sympathized with him in his Tory politics. Indeed, the young professor early turned his attention to political pamphleteering rather than to the teaching of history. It is doubtful whether he ever taught any history at all, unless he did it before his second appointment, while yet a professor of jurisprudence. A letter, written from London early in 1775, describes him as "Parson Vardill, a native of New York, who has been here a twelve-month,—a ministerial writer under the signature of Coriolanus, lately appointed King's Professor in the College of New York, with a salary of £200 sterling." (N. F. Moore's *Historical Sketch of Columbia College*, page 57, edition of 1846.) President Moore, the historian of Columbia College, says (p. 87), the Rev. John Vardill probably never entered on the duties of his office. Very little importance, therefore, should be attached to his appointment, save that of the early recognition of History and Politics in the faculty of that institution which has since done so much for their joint advancement in this country.

After the Revolution, Columbia College, having dropped its royal name and patron as well as its Tory president and Tory professor of history, took a fresh start under American auspices. An old broadside, preserved in the Columbia library, contains the statutes of the college for 1785, and a "Plan of Education," whereby it appears that history was taught in what was then a unique way for America. The Rev. John Gross, Professor of German and Geography, from 1784 to 1795, taught the sophomore class three times a week, in a course which was characterized as a "Description of the Globe in respect of all general matters. Rise, extent, and fall of ancient empires; chronology as low as the fall of the Roman Empire; present state of the world; origin of the present States and Kingdoms—their extent, power, commerce, religion, and customs; modern chronology." This was history with an ancient and geographical basis, but with a modern political outlook. It was a highly creditable course, the best that the writer has found in the annals of any American college, at that early period. It savors, however, more of German than of English origin. John Gross, Professor of German and Geography, and afterward of Moral Philosophy, evidently represents a European current in American college instruction. He was the forerunner of Francis Lieber, the German-American.

PROFESSOR CHARLES ANTHON.

Side by side with historico-geographical studies at Columbia ran the old scholastic course in Greek and Roman Antiquities, which had probably been taught, from the beginning of the college, in connection with the classical department. Classical History has really been the life current of historical instruction at Columbia, as in every other American college. It was often a feeble, sluggish current, but it was constant; and it sufficed to keep history from dying out in the student-consciousness. It would be unprofitable to follow this little classical stream through all its meanderings to its present deeper and wider flow; it is enough to say that it began to expand during the tutorship of Charles Anthon, who was called to teach the classics at Columbia in 1820. He became Adjunct Professor in 1830, and Jay Professor of Greek and Latin in 1857. Immediately he divided his department with Professor Drisler; but remained its head until 1867, when he died. The long service of this classical teacher and editor, who has been for well-nigh two generations a familiar spirit, for good or evil, in every preparatory school, undoubtedly did much for the promotion of the study of classical antiquities at Columbia College and throughout the country. He gave direction to the teaching of Greek and Roman History, and supplied means for its illustration which were helpful in their time. Without this steady current of classical and antiquarian instruction which he represented at Columbia for nearly fifty years, it is doubtful whether such an impetus would have been given to historical and political studies as came in 1856 by his direct advice.

PROFESSOR JOHN McVICKAR.

In the continuity of historico-political studies at Columbia College there was another important influence contemporary with Professor Anthon; namely, the Rev. John McVickar, who was appointed Professor of Philosophy, Rhetoric, and Belles Letters in the year 1817. This man, the successor of the Rev. Dr. Bowden, is too little known to American students of History and Economics—in both of which studies he was a remarkable pioneer. It would be a useful, as well as pious service, if some one of the present instructors in the School of Political Science at Columbia would prepare an academic memorial of John McVickar, as he did of his worthy predecessor, Dr. Bowden (1751–1817), in an address delivered to the Alumni of Columbia College, October 4, 1837. Although the life of the Rev. John McVickar has been written, as a “clerical biography,” by his son (New York: Hurd & Houghton, 1872), there is so much of academic interest in his life and writings, so much unused biographical material in the archives of Columbia College, that a special study of his professorial career would certainly repay the younger generation of teachers.

In general, the service rendered by Professor McVickar to Historical and Political Science at Columbia College resembles that rendered by Professor Francis Bowen in Harvard College. Under the broad ægis of a philosophical professorship, both teachers protected and encouraged historico-political studies. Both inclined most strongly toward politico-economics. Both produced text-books of political economy, which, in their day and generation, proved very helpful to American students. In these days, when the study of economics is coming to the front in our colleges and universities, it will be recognized as a distinguished honor for Professor McVickar that he was one of the first men in this country to lecture upon political economy to students, and also one of the first to publish a text-book upon the subject.

John McVickar (1787–1863) was the son of a leading merchant of New York City, and was of Scotch descent. Heredity and environment gave him a natural inclination toward the study of economic questions. Born in the business center of the United States, into family acquaintance with wealthy and influential men, into association with Albert Gallatin, Isaac Bronson, and Mr. Biddle, young McVickar could not escape the great problems of currency and banking which agitated his times. Although, after his graduation from Columbia College, educated as a theologian and for a time settled as rector of a parish in Hyde Park, he readily accepted the philosophical professorship made vacant by the death of Dr. Bowden in 1817; and, within a year, petitioned to have Political Economy added to his already wide domain, without any increase of salary. The year 1818 marks the establishment of economic science in Columbia College,¹ which was one of the first to

¹ William and Mary College is an historic rival of Columbia with regard to priority of recognition of economics in the curriculum. In a letter from Joseph C. Cabell to Thomas Jefferson, dated August 4, 1816, is this statement: “Dr. Smith has adopted

recognize this subject in the United States. For several years the need of a text-book of Political Economy was deeply felt by McVickar as an aid to his lectures. In 1821 he appears to have urged Edward Everett to prepare a suitable hand-book; but the great orator, while expressing interest in the subject, pleaded other engagements. In 1825 McVickar brought out his *Outlines of Political Economy*. This thin octavo volume, which an American student may well prize if he can now secure a copy, was an American adaptation of J. R. M'Culloch's article on Political Economy originally published in the *Edinburgh supplement to the old Encyclopædia Britannica*. This article, by the first Ricardo lecturer on Political Economy, well deserves comparison with that in the new edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, for the sake of the historical method which both articles represent. M'Culloch, with his review of the rise of economic science, the mercantile system, the manufacturing system, the opinions of Mr. Mun, Sir Josiah Child, Dudley North, Mr. Locke, *et al.*, may be as truly called a representative of the historical school of economics as Knies or Roscher.

It is interesting to reflect that the English historical method of J. R. M'Culloch was introduced into America by John McVickar, more than

the *Review of Montesquieu* [by Count Destutt Tracy] as the text-book on the Principles of Government for the students of William and Mary. He will adopt either Say or Tracy on Political Economy, as the one or the other may appear best, when the latter comes out." Tracy's *Treatise on Political Economy*, for the translation and publication of which Jefferson had early arranged, was issued from the press of Joseph Milligan, at Georgetown, D. C., in 1817, with a brief introductory sketch of the history of economic literature from Jefferson's own pen. Cabell was meditating a translation of Say, but gave up the project. Tracy's elaborate *Review of Montesquieu* was published at Jefferson's instance in Philadelphia, *circa* 1812. This work, which was adopted at William and Mary College in 1816, contained Tracy's economic views. Jefferson said, when recommending it through Cabell: "Dr. Smith, you say, asks what is the best elementary book on the principles of government? None in the world equal to the *Review of Montesquieu*, printed at Philadelphia a few years ago. It has the advantage, too, of being equally sound and corrective of the principles of political economy, and all within the compass of a thin 8vo." Jefferson was one of the first promoters of political economy in this country. In 1816 he wrote to Cabell that he would render the country a great service by translating Say, "for there is no branch of science of which our countrymen seem so ignorant as political economy." Jefferson came very near capturing the French economist for his own Central College, afterward the University of Virginia. Jefferson wrote to his friend Cabell January 5, 1815: "I have lately received a letter from Say. He has in contemplation to remove to this country, and to this neighborhood particularly." Failing in that brilliant scheme, Jefferson secured, in 1817, the professorial services of Dr. Thomas Cooper, the English economist and refugee, who had settled in Pennsylvania some years before, and had there written upon economic subjects. As early as 1810 Jefferson said of Cooper: "The best pieces on political economy which have been written in this country were by Cooper." This universal scholar, of whom so little is now known, never actually taught political economy in the University of Virginia, which chose him for its first professor, but from which he early resigned on account of sectarian opposition. He became eminent as a teacher of economics in the College of South Carolina, where he early published a text-book of political economy, which should be compared with that of McVickar.

twenty-five years before the rise of either of these German pioneers. By more than fifty years did the Scotch student of M'Culloch and Adam Smith anticipate the American disciples of Knies and Roscher in advocating historico-political economy. McVickar appended many original notes to M'Culloch; and, among other good things, he said of political economy: "To the rising government of America it teaches the wisdom of European experience." He called economics "the redeeming science of modern times—the regenerating principle that, in connection with the spirit of Christianity, is at work in the civilized governments of the world, not to revolutionize, but to reform." Besides his original notes, which show not only deep moral, but profound practical insight into economic questions, McVickar appended a general summary of economic science, which probably reveals something of his own method of presenting the subject to his classes. This text-book, which is said to be "the first work on the science of political economy published in America,"¹ (McVickar's *Life of John McVickar*, 85) was welcomed by Chancellor Kent and Thomas Jefferson in the warmest terms. The sage of Monticello said of the subject which the book represented: "I rejoice to see that it is beginning to be cultivated in our schools. No country on earth requires a sound intelligence of it more than ours."

Among the early economic writings of McVickar are the following pamphlets: *Interest Made Equity* (1826), an English article, like his text-book, with American notes; *Hints on Banking* (1827), an original paper of forty or more pages, addressed to a member of the New York legislature, and said to have been the origin of the free banking law of New York (1833), and the scientific forerunner of practical reforms in the Bank of England, 1844, and also the National Bank Act of the United States in 1863 (Appendix to the *Life of McVickar*, 411). A more distinct foreshadowing of our present national system of banking was Professor McVickar's article, published in 1841, entitled "A National Bank: Its Necessity and most Advisable Form." This and other financial articles were published by McVickar in the *New York Review*, which closed its influential career in 1842. He wrote on "American Finances"; on "The Expediency of Abolishing Damages on Protested Bills of Exchange"; on "The Evils of Divers State Laws to regulate Damages on Foreign Bills of Exchange," &c. A complete bibliography of the writings of John McVickar would be a helpful addition to the Dewey system of classification in the excellent library of Columbia College. In the history of economic thought in the United States John McVickar will surely take an honorable place as an academic pioneer. Practical economists, like Franklin, Robert Morris, and Alexander Hamilton, this country had,

¹ This statement, as will appear from the previous foot-note, is not strictly true, for Destutt Tracy's *Treatise on Political Economy* appeared in 1817. McVickar undoubtedly deserves great credit for pioneer work, but the claim to absolute priority in this country as a lecturer upon Political Economy, asserted for him by his filial biographer, should be viewed with caution until the facts are more fully known.

indeed, developed; but professorial economists, with original and independent views, were rare in America before the days of John McVickar. His chief rival to priority was Professor Cooper, of Dickinson College and of the University of Pennsylvania, the friend of Jefferson, and the predecessor of Francis Lieber, in Columbia, S. C. By a singular chance the two lines of economic teaching came together at last in Columbia College, New York, when, in 1857, Francis Lieber was called to that institution as the successor to John McVickar.

The subject of History was also taught by Professor McVickar as a branch of his philosophical department. The statutes of Columbia College show that from the beginning of the present century Greek and Roman History, or Classical Antiquities, remained in the hands of the classical department. But some attention was always given to Modern History; and this appears to have been intrusted to the professor of Philosophy, Rhetoric, and Belles Lettres. It was probably a natural continuation of the original historical work of John Gross, teacher of Geography and German, who was made Professor of Philosophy, also, in 1787. The preparation which Professor McVickar enjoyed for the teaching of history was not as good as that which came to him by nature and associations for the teaching of political economy. While yet a theological student, he appears, however, to have pursued a course of historical reading, and to have invented a system of mnemonics which he applied to Bossuet's Chronolgy. Entering upon his professorship, McVickar worked out his own methods of instruction by a long course of experience, the results of which may be generalized upon the basis of the following authentic testimony.

In a report of a committee of the trustees of Columbia College, a statement was made, in 1856, by Professor McVickar, with respect to the duties of his department. He said his professorship comprised a "union of historical and philosophical studies," of which he advised the division. To the sophomores, during their first *semester*, he taught "Modern European History, more especially from the latter half of the fifteenth century, being the period suggested by Heeren as the true commencement of the European system. The second session was the exact and critical study of English History, as the great storehouse of our political wisdom. In addition to this, there were essays on subjects connected with the course read and criticised in the lecture-room; the whole embodied in notes, as stated in my annual reports." In regard to his method of teaching, Professor McVickar told the committee that any good history in the hands of students was sufficient. He said, "The subject is studied, not the text-book. My practice is, at the commencement, to explain the subject of text-books, and to give the class a list of the best, any one of which would be satisfactory. I have made it a point to ascertain from the best students of other colleges the results of studying from text-books, and have felt that such instruction makes little impression on the memory." In reply to a question from

the committee as to whether he delivered his lectures from notes, Professor McVickar said: "I have written notes; and in the earlier periods I used to read lectures. Experience brought me to a freer use of notes, as guiding the analysis of the subjects, but not controlling the words."

All this has a modern tone, and indicates a man of sensible ideas. There was, however, one radical fault found with Professor McVickar, which he perhaps inherited from Dr. Bowden; he did not succeed in keeping good discipline among his students. In his eulogy of Dr. Bowden, McVickar said, with a certain reflex significance, "As a disciplinarian he held lightly the staff of authority." McVickar's own students appear to have recognized this amiable weakness in their master, and to have presumed upon it. Some dissatisfaction was felt by the administration with what was allowed in the recitation-room of Professor McVickar; and the inquiry into his methods of instruction reveals a certain animus, with a decided tendency toward a reconstruction of the entire department.

In 1857, by the advice and consent of Professor McVickar, the duties of his too laborious and too comprehensive professorship were divided into three independent chairs: (1) Moral and Intellectual Philosophy; (2) Ancient and Modern Literature (*Belles Lettres*); (3) History and Political Science. Professor McVickar was transferred to the chair of Evidences of Natural and Revealed Religion which he held until 1864, when he retired from office, his duties passing to the then president. The chair of Philosophy was given to Professor Charles Murray Nairns. The chair of *Belles Lettres* was offered to Samuel Eliot, of Boston; but he declined it, and the duties were then intrusted to Professor Nairns.

ADVICE OF PROFESSOR ANTHON.

In the report of the committee above cited is a statement by Professor Anthon, with reference to the status of history at Columbia College, in the year 1856, at which time there was considerable discussion among the trustees with reference to the reorganization of departments and the conversion of the college into a university. In answer to a question propounded by the committee as to whose duty it then was to teach Ancient History, Professor Anthon said that, as regards freshmen, it belonged to the Adjunct Professor of Latin and Greek. He said, also, that the historical teaching of subsequent classes—the continuation of freshman History and Geography—belonged to the philosophical department of Professor McVickar. Then follows Professor Anthon's recommendation for a distinct chair of History. "In my opinion," he said, "the whole subject ought to be assigned to a separate department, called the Professorship of History, distinct from the other departments and embracing both Ancient and Modern History." This was the same idea which influenced Harvard College, in the year 1839, to institute the McLean Professorship of Ancient and Modern

History, which was first held by Jared Sparks. A suitable man to realize this idea in Columbia College was doubtless already in the mind of President King, and such confidential advisers as Professor Anthon.

THE CALL OF FRANCIS LIEBER.

As early as 1853 there had begun a presidential correspondence with Francis Lieber, Professor of History, Political Economy, and Philosophy in the College at Columbia, S. C. "About three years ago," says Lieber, in a communication to the Columbia trustees written in September, 1856, "I was requested to give my views regarding a university in New York. I sent a paper to President King, and would now refer to that." About this time (1856) Lieber, among others, had been asked by the trustees for written opinions¹ on a great variety of questions of academic interest. It was, undoubtedly, this correspondence and the growing fame of Lieber's works on civil liberty and political ethics which secured him the call,² in 1857, to the professorship of History and Political Science in Columbia College. In February of that year he had recommended to the trustees that they should begin the university at once. "Four professors," he said, "one of Languages or Literature, one of History and Political Sciences, and two of the Natural Sciences would seem sufficient to make a beginning." Nothing came of this excellent project for a university; but Lieber was soon installed in a position for which, by natural predilection and academic experience, he was eminently fitted. By vote of the trustees, October 5, 1857, the following subjects of instruction, some of which were doubtless designed for law students, were assigned to the new professor: Modern History, Political Science, International Law, Civil Law, and Common Law. Evidently, both Lieber and the trustees had a large conception of the duties of the new professorship and of its possible relations to the Columbia Law School. It was a colossal undertaking for one man to attempt to lecture upon all these great subjects. Lieber carried as much of the burden as he was able to do, from 1857 until 1865, when he was transferred to the Columbia College Law School as professor of Constitutional History.

ALLIANCE OF HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.

The call of Francis Lieber to Columbia College, New York, in 1857, from Columbia, S. C., marks the first recognition by a Northern college

¹ Replies of Gentlemen, not officers of the Institution, to printed-circular questions of the committee. Communication of Professor Francis Lieber, 1856. These replies are in a bound volume of Reports, Statements, Opinions, Testimony, 1858, Columbia College Library.

² Resolutions Passed by the Trustees of Columbia College, 1820-1868. New York: Van Nostrand, 1868. It is interesting to note, in connection with the call of Francis Lieber, that, in February, 1857, on motion of Mr. Ruggles, it was resolved that a professorship of American History be established in Columbia College.

of history and politics as properly co-ordinated sciences. At the College of South Carolina, Lieber had taught history, political economy, and philosophy as a homogeneous group. The presence of the latter subject in his professorship betrays a survival of the old scholastic connection between metaphysics and politics, a connection which lasted long at Harvard, Columbia, and many other colleges. It was the great ambition of Lieber to associate history with the political sciences, and to make these studies an independent and homogeneous department. This end was finally achieved by his establishment in Columbia College, New York. The combination which he there made was the historical corner-stone of the extensive school of political science which is now building in that institution under the direction of Lieber's successor, Professor John W. Burgess.

There is a valuable and suggestive idea in Lieber's first combination of history and politics which ought to influence all American colleges and universities in the proper co-ordination of these studies. If, for economic or other reasons, there must be a grouping of various subjects under one administrative head, history ought rather to be yoked with political science than with language, literature, or philosophy. The nature of history and political science determines their intimate relation, if not their necessary co-ordination. "History is past politics, and politics is present history." History is, primarily, the experience of man in organized societies or so-called states. Political science is the application of this historical experience to the existing problems of an ever progressive society. History and politics are as inseparable as past and present. This view is justified by the best historical and political opinion of our time: Ranke, Droysen, Bluntschli, Knies, Roscher, Nitzsch, Freeman, Seeley, and by the practical experience of the best American colleges and universities.

LIEBER'S ANTECEDENTS.

Franz Lieber was a German-American. He was born in Berlin in the year 1800, and was educated in the Berlin Gymnasium, one of the many institutions founded for the physical and mental training of German youth, and for the liberation of Prussia from the Napoleonic yoke. Lieber was always an enthusiast for liberty. He fought in the battle of Waterloo, against the French, when he was only fifteen years old. He took his doctor's degree at Jena, in 1820. He then went to Greece, like Lord Byron, to aid the revolutionists. He returned, in sorry plight, by way of Rome, where he found shelter and encouragement in the house of Niebuhr, the historian, then Prussian ambassador at the Papal court. Young Lieber became house-tutor to Niebuhr's son Marcus, and was the intimate companion of the historian of Rome in his walks over the Campagna. Lieber learned the science of history from one of the greatest of German masters, from a man who, perhaps more

than all others, save Leopold von Ranke, has influenced historical study in the nineteenth century.

Politics were learned by Lieber not so much from masters and from books as from the harsh experiences of actual life in Greece and Prussia, England and America. He was bred in the school of student-enthusiasts, but his ideals were tempered by contact with facts. For his revolutionary sentiments he once sat for several months in one of the state prisons of Prussia. Liberated, finally, through the personal influence of Niebuhr, by his advice Lieber sought refuge in England, in 1825. This favored land, where liberty has always been secured through law, gave character and substance to the young German's political philosophy. He abandoned dreams and idle speculations. Henceforth the English reality of institutional liberty became his ideal.

In 1827 Lieber came out to America, where his practical philosophy was destined to find vigorous expression in the teaching of youth. It is often said, with a shade of wonder and compassion, that Lieber began life in Boston as teacher in a swimming-school. Few people really understand what this fact represents. In Prussia, Francis Lieber had been a gymnastic pupil of Dr. Jahn, the father of modern physical culture; the man who, more than all others, laid the basis of physical training for New Prussia and for the Prussian army. Dr. John Warren and a few prominent gentlemen in Boston had conceived the idea of introducing the Prussian system of physical culture into this country. They invited "Father Jahn" to come over to Boston and establish a gymnasium. Jahn was unwilling to come; but he recommended one of his favorite pupils, Franz Lieber, then in England. Accordingly, Lieber was asked to come to Boston and conduct the Tremont Gymnasium, which he gladly consented to do. The full significance of the fact of Lieber's teaching in a Boston swimming-school is, therefore, that he taught, scientifically, Prussian gymnastics, of which a swimming-school was only an incidental. Lieber was almost the first exponent in America of the physical basis of education. The very first teacher of gymnastics in this country was Dr. Charles Beck, another pupil and friend of "Father Jahn." Beck established a gymnasium in connection with the famous Round Hill School, at Northampton, Mass., in 1825, where George Bancroft, one of the managers of the school, and himself an offspring of German culture, began to write the History of the United States. Beck, the gymnast, was, at the same time, teacher of Latin; and he afterward became professor of Latin in Harvard College.¹

¹ Physical Training in American Colleges and Universities, by Dr. E. M. Hartwell, Circular of Information, Bureau of Education, No. 5, 1885, pp. 24, 161; a very suggestive and valuable document.

An interesting fact, not mentioned in Dr. Hartwell's report, is the direct communication of the gymnasium idea from the Round Hill School to Williams College. Ex-president Mark Hopkins, in his semi-centennial address, 1886, says Williams was "the first college to move in regard to it (a gymnasium)." "I was sent, when a tutor, to Northampton to see it; and the result was some apparatus in the open air,

Francis Lieber was not content with teaching gymnastics. He was American correspondent for German newspapers. He undertook, with success, an American adaptation of the *Conversations lexikon* of Brockhaus, in the old *Encyclopædia Americana*, upon which he did much original work, embodying the fruits of his study of English institutions. In such contributions we have the key-note to Lieber's life-work. He was to mediate between German culture and American wants through Anglo-American training. He was the transmitter of German ideas of education to Girard College, in Philadelphia. Without following his career from Boston down the Atlantic sea-board, we find the young man, at the age of thirty-seven, just ten years after his landing in America, installed as professor in a Southern college, in Columbia, S. C. There he remained for just twenty years. It was his golden time of scholastic leisure and scholarly production. All of his great works—his *Legal and Political Hermeneutics*, his *Political Ethics*, and his *Civil Liberty and Self-government*—were produced during this sojourn at the South. These works represent the first real transmission of German political philosophy to the New World, through the clarifying experience of English history and American life. His was the first great original production of political science in America. This creation came from the contact of a philosophic German mind with the historic realities of Anglo-American liberty. Lieber always had a wonderful power of assimilating the facts of experience. His strong, healthy nature, made more vigorous by physical culture, seemed to thrive in every new environment. From all sides he drew fresh inspiration. A German at heart, he became English in his history and American in his politics.

LIEBER'S METHOD OF TEACHING.

Judge Thayer, Lieber's biographer, says, with great earnestness, "America owes a large debt to Lieber. Probably no man has instructed so many of our countrymen in the truths of history, the canons of ethics, and the principles of political science. Nearly forty years of his life were spent in that service—years crowded also with industry in other departments, and in which he produced those great works which will in the future take their place beside the most important which have appeared in the history of jurisprudence. His method of teaching was such as to make the subject attractive in the highest degree to his students, and they thoroughly understood everything they learned. He never read lectures, but expounded his subject in terse, familiar language, and impressed them by copious and happy illustrations. At the end of every recitation he gave out what, for the next time, they

south of East College. I remember a swing and some parallel bars. From that swing and those bars the present gymnasium, with its clock, has been developed through several intermediate forms—much, I suppose, as the higher animals were developed from the lower."

ought to read collaterally, and what peculiar subjects or persons they ought to study besides the lesson. He caused them to read poetry and fiction, in connection with history, to see how great writers had conceived great characters. He relied much upon the blackboard. To one he would give chronology; to another, geography; to another, names; to another, battles. Four large blackboards were in constant use at the same time, and often a considerable part of the floor besides. All names were required to be written down, sometimes sixty or seventy, by one student, with a word or two showing that the writer knew what they meant. All places were pointed out on large maps and globes. All definitions were written on the blackboard, in order that there might be no mistake. Foreign names were always written on the blackboard behind him. He always appointed a lesson; but the students, when they came, did not know whether they were to recite or to listen to a lecture, so that they always had to be prepared. Notes of his lectures were to be taken; and he required each student to have a blank book, wherein they must enter titles of books and subjects to be studied in later life—such as were necessary for an educated man; and he was particular in requiring this blank book to have a firm cover. He used to say that books were, like men, of little use without a stiff back.” (The Life, Character, and Writings of Francis Lieber, by Hon. M. Russell Thayer, republished in Lieber’s Miscellaneous Writings, Vol. I, p. 34.)

PRESIDENT BARNARD’S REPORT, 1865.

In President Barnard’s Annual Report for 1865 there is some account of the status of Lieber’s department after the lapse of eight years. The president said the seniors were taught Modern History, Political Philosophy, and Political Economy. The text books, in the two latter subjects, were Lieber’s Civil Liberty and Say’s Political Economy. Lieber’s own annotated copies of these works are now preserved in the historical library of the Johns Hopkins University, showing the wealth of fact and illustration which he accumulated for his classes, in greater volume with each succeeding year. President Barnard says that “as a basis for the lectures on Modern History, the professor took Weber’s Outlines of Universal History.” These subjects were taught two hours, weekly, chiefly by impromptu lectures on the part of the teacher and written exercises on the part of the student. To the junior class the professor gave two hours a week of historical instruction through the year. The sophomore class had Roman History—from Wilson’s Outlines—to the downfall of the Western Empire. From the same text-book the freshmen were taught the history of Greece down to the conquest of that country by the Romans, in 146 B. C.

In this same report President Barnard expresses some dissatisfaction with the distribution of professorial force in the curriculum of Columbia College. He says: “All the subjects embraced in the two depart-

ments of Philosophy and English and of History and Political Science, might be better put into the hands of a single instructor, with a tutor to assist him, than be disposed of as at present. It is quite doubtful, in the view of the undersigned, whether Modern History, in the proper sense of the word, ought to occupy any considerable space in the teaching of our colleges. The subject is so vast, and practically so exhaustless, that the little which can be taught in the few hours of class instruction (if that is *all* the learner ever knows) amounts to but a small remove from absolute ignorance. There are certain large outlines that can be sketched boldly out; but that being done, the instructor will much more profitably employ himself in furnishing the student with something of the bibliography of history—in giving him, in short, a guide for his private reading—than in attempting any detail of the growth and decline of particular peoples, or the rise and fall of particular empires.”

On the 5th of June, 1865, the trustees of Columbia College resolved that a committee of five be appointed to report “on the expediency of abolishing the professorship of history.” On the 6th of July following it was resolved, “That, until further order of this board, instruction in history and political economy be given by the professor of philosophy and English literature, under the direction of the president.” Columbia College thus returned to the old system which had prevailed in 1856, before the duties of Professor McVickar had been divided, and before Francis Lieber had been called to represent History and Political Science. Professor Nairne, who was McVickar’s successor in Philosophy, now took direction of all the English and historical work, with Eugene Lawrence—since known to literary fame—as an assistant in the branches last mentioned. Wayland’s Political Economy was taught to the senior class by the professor of philosophy. Lieber’s predilection for more advanced political science and his natural inclination to work with law students, rather than with undergraduates, probably had much to do with this seeming reaction on the part of college instruction. But it does not appear that the historical teaching by Mr. Lawrence was at all inferior to that given by any of his predecessors. He taught the freshmen Anthon’s Manual of Antiquities and Wilson’s Outlines of the Early Ages of the World and of Grecian History; while to the upper classes he taught Roman History, Mediæval History, and Modern History down to 1763, closing his course with the philosophic causes and leading facts of the French Revolution. He also required essays on historical subjects every month. History continued as an annex to the department of Philosophy and English Literature down to 1876, with frequent changes of the historical instructor.

In the president’s reports for 1871–’72, the following statements concerning Dr. Quackenbos’s methods of historical teaching are noteworthy: “The method of instruction was peculiar. Students were required to write upon the blackboard accounts of the subjects given to them; and

thus they learned facility and condensation of expression, and probably fixed details more firmly in their minds." (Report of 1871, 10-11.) Again, President Barnard observes: "The method of daily recitation consisted, to a large extent, of written sketches, prepared in presence of the class by individual students upon the blackboard." (Report of 1872, 11.) This method of recitation, from blackboard briefs or analyses, has been profitably employed in certain departments at the West Point Military Academy and in the University of Virginia. The historical text-books at Columbia College, for the period from 1865 to 1876, were Wilson, Weber, Taylor, Hume, Lingard, and Creasy.

LIEBER IN THE LAW SCHOOL.

The professional work of Francis Lieber, from 1865 to 1876, was chiefly in the Law School. His salary there was \$4,000 per annum. By resolution of the trustees of Columbia College, June 6, 1865, law students were required to attend such of Dr. Lieber's lectures as the law-school committee should deem proper. By another resolution, passed October 9, 1865, Lieber's title was declared to be "Professor of Constitutional History and Public Law." It was also then resolved that "it shall be the duty of the professor, during each academic year, to deliver one lecture, weekly, to each class; that lectures on the constitutional history of England be delivered to the junior class, and on that of the United States to the senior class; and also a course on modern political history to the junior class, and on government to the senior class." An authoritative statement in regard to Lieber's connection with the Columbia College Law School is the following, by Professor Dwight, for many years the head of that school: "Professor Lieber's connection with the school continued until his death, in the summer of 1872; and he gave, yearly, a course of lectures upon those special subjects in which he had gained great distinction for his learning, originality, and independence of thought, extensive research, and sound judgment, viz, 'The History of Political Literature'; 'Political Ethics'; 'The Origin, Development, Objects, and History of Political Society'; 'Constitutional Government,' etc. Since his death his place has been temporarily filled by special lecturers, delivering courses of lectures upon the cognate subjects of political science, civil polity, and international law, among whom have been included Hon. George H. Gusman, formerly United States Consul to Denmark; Charles W. McLean, and Professor John W. Burgess of Amherst College. It is expected, however, that a professor will soon be elected to occupy, permanently, this vacant chair." (Quoted in the Historical Sketch of Columbia College, 1754-1876, by Professor J. Howard Van Amringe, page 84.)

PROFESSOR JOHN W. BURGESS.

The call of Professor John W. Burgess to take up anew the work of Francis Lieber, both in the law school and in Columbia College, was due, in great measure, to the good judgment and personal influence of

Professor Theodore W. Dwight, who, during his own lecture courses on constitutional law at Amherst had discovered the merits of the rising young professor of History in that institution. Even before his call to Amherst, however, Mr. Burgess had been recommended to Columbia by President Seelye.

John W. Burgess, born in Cornersville, Tenn., 1844, was graduated from Amherst College in 1867. He was the class orator, and a man highly esteemed by the president and faculty. He probably acquired his taste for history and political science through the personal influence of President Seelye, who has pointed more than one Amherst graduate to the historico-political field of study. After graduation, Mr. Burgess first studied law for two years with one of the trustees of the college, the Hon. Henry Morris, LL. D., of Springfield, Mass.; but, through the recommendation of President Seelye, he soon after went to Knox College, Galesburg, Ill., where he taught English literature and political economy from 1869 to 1871. He then went to Germany to study history and political science in Goettingen, Leipzig, and Berlin. In the latter university he came particularly under the influence of the late Professor Gustav Droysen, the political historian of Prussia. In 1873 Mr. Burgess was called to the newly established professorship of history and political science in Amherst College, where he lectured with extraordinary success until 1876, when he was invited to a similar chair in Columbia College, as the successor of Francis Lieber.

INFLUENCE OF PROFESSOR BURGESS AT AMHERST COLLEGE.

The influence which Professor Burgess exerted upon the students of Amherst College during his three years' sojourn in that institution is hardly paralleled in the annals of the college. For forty years, from 1833 to 1873, there had been scarcely any Modern History in the curriculum. In early years considerable attention had been given to the subject by Professor Nathan W. Fiske, father of Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson. He was professor of Greek and Belles Lettres, but found time to teach history, by topics and lectures, to both juniors and seniors. He was a truly modern spirit; for, while expounding Heeren's Politics of Ancient Greece, he gave lectures on European and American politics, from an historical point of view. One unique feature of the course on American History was described to the writer by Professor William S. Tyler—Professor Fiske's successor in the Greek department at Amherst. Every year Professor Fiske used to introduce to his class a veteran soldier of the Revolution—General Mattoon, of Amherst—who told the boys about the battle of Saratoga, in which he himself had personally engaged. This objective method—which reminds one of Goldsmith's village veteran who "shouldered his crutch and showed how fields were won"—is, after all, the same in principle as that employed by modern historical societies at Harvard and at the Johns Hopkins Universities, where veteran officers, from both the Confederate and Federal sides,

have been invited to lecture to students on the campaigns of our late civil war.

After Professor Fiske took the burden of Latin as well as Greek, in 1833, modern history had to be abandoned at Amherst; but for many years classical history continued to live upon the inspiration furnished by Fiske's translation from the German of Eschenburg. Political science never died out at Amherst. Almost from the beginning of the college, 1821, such works as Vattel's Law of Nations, Say's Political Economy, Ferguson's Civil Government, Kent, Story, Wayland, and Walker were taught by the philosophical department. Indeed, Professor Fiske took the latter chair in 1836. But history fell into neglect for more than a generation. Conscious of the great need of the college, Professor Edward Tuckerman, the distinguished specialist in botany—in whose honor "Tuckerman's Ravine" was so named in the White Mountains—volunteered yearly, after 1854, a course of twelve lectures on the Philosophy of History to the senior class. At one time he gave them systematic instruction in Guizot's History of Civilization. But Professor Tuckerman was occupied with his botanical studies, and had retired from active service in the college long before the call of Professor Burgess in 1873.

Classical history survived at Amherst, as in almost every American college, as a necessary adjunct of the classical department. In the writer's college days at Amherst, 1868-'72, a few weeks' instruction in Greek and Roman history was all that the college could afford its students, under the increasing pressure of a crowded curriculum. The instruction in classical history was probably as good as any of its kind in the country. It was accompanied by interesting lectures on classical literature, leading some students to independent readings, not only in the classics, but in classical history. The men who represented Greek and Latin at Amherst—Professors Tyler, Crowell, and Mather—were certainly able and inspiring teachers. Through the instrumentality of Herodotus, Thucydides, Demosthenes, Livy, and Tacitus they taught ancient history from original sources—the most scholarly of all methods. But there was a great gap in the historical knowledge of Amherst students. They knew almost nothing of the great modern world of European history. The only suggestion of the greatness of the subject came from one lecture in Professor Seelye's philosophical course, wherein he demonstrated that history is the grandest study in the world. Among the best fruits of his régime after he became president of the college was the expansion of his original historical idea through the professorship of John W. Burgess, and of the latter's able and progressive successor, Anson D. Morse¹—a former pupil of Bluntschli's at Heidelberg.

¹ A pleasing indication of continued comity between Amherst and Columbia is Professor Morse's recent contribution (June, 1886) to the Political Science Quarterly, edited by the faculty of Political Science in the latter institution, upon the subject of "Andrew Jackson"—an original and suggestive view of the nationalizing influence of the great Democrat.

The discovery of the European world of history and politics was to the scholastic mind of young Amherst a real renaissance. It was the opening of a new hemisphere of thought and culture. Students began to appreciate that the world is truly round. An unusual number of graduates in 1874 (the first class taught by Professor Burgess) went to Europe for study and travel. Individual Amherst students had indeed gone to Germany before this time to study natural science; and some, quickened by the same personal influence which doubtless first moved Professor Burgess, went to study history and political science. The students of Professor Burgess went to Berlin in shoals. They went in such numbers that they began to be called "The Burgess School." They all went to hear Droysen lecture, and came home with trunks full of Droysen's *Preussische Politik* and of the writings of Leopold von Ranke. Not all of these young men have since become historians; but none of them are the worse for their travels. Some are extremely clever fellows, and have practiced law and politics with considerable success. A few developed qualities suited to academic life; and from this chosen few Professor Burgess has gathered recruits for the School of Political Science, which is now to be described.

SCHOOL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE.

From 1876 to 1880 the work of Professor Burgess in Columbia College was preparatory to an organized school of historical and political science. The development process may be traced in the annual reports of the work done in the department. During this period of four years the main object appears to have been to lay historical groundwork for the undergraduate students. The history and antiquities of Greece and Rome were evidently left in the hands of the classical instructors. Professor Burgess began his work with the senior class, giving them a course of lectures, two hours a week for the first session, upon mediæval institutions, the object of which course was "to present, in outline, a history of the origin of institutional life among the Teutonic peoples." A second course, occupying the same amount of time during the second session, was devoted to the constitutional system of government, with particular reference to the United States, and to the constitutions of the several States of the American Union. In 1877-'78 the department was strengthened by the addition of an assistant—Richmond Mayo Smith—one of the former pupils of Professor Burgess, from the class of 1875, Amherst College. The assistant began to teach Germanic and, more especially, English institutions to the junior class, two hours a week for the first half year, using Stubbs' *Constitutional History of England*. The second half he taught Rogers' *Manual of Political Economy*. He also taught, for two hours a week, a section of the senior class in a more advanced course, using Mill's *Political Economy*, with frequent reference to other authorities, to documents and statistics. Historical work was soon pushed back into the sophomore curriculum,

so that students obtained an additional half-year, two hours a week, for their Germanic institutions and English constitutional history. Somewhat later, with a further increase of teaching-force in the person of Mr. Clifford Rush Bateman (an Amherst graduate from the class of 1875), came a further conquest of time—two hours a week the first term of sophomore year for French and German history; so that the European foundations of history and political science were fairly laid by the gymnastic method. The lectures of Professor Burgess, on the college side, after the appointment of his first assistant, were directed more particularly to the history of the American colonial period, to the development of the United States as a government and nationality, to the principles of our polity, State and National, and to the interpretation of the same by the Federal judiciary. Along such lines of work the School of Political Science has developed.

On the 7th of June, 1880, the trustees of Columbia College adopted the following important resolutions:

1. *Resolved*, That there be established, to go into operation at the opening of the academic year next ensuing, a school designed to prepare young men for the duties of public life, to be entitled a School of Political Science, having a definitely prescribed curriculum of study extending over a period of three years, and embracing the History of Philosophy; the History of the Literature of the Political Sciences; the General Constitutional History of Europe; the Special Constitutional History of England and the United States; the Roman Law, and the jurisprudence of existing codes derived therefrom; the Comparative Constitutional Law of European States and of the United States; the Comparative Constitutional Law of the different States of the American Union; the History of Diplomacy; International Law; Systems of Administration, State and National, of the United States; Comparison of American and European Systems of Administration; Political Economy and Statistics.

2. *Resolved*, That the qualification required of the candidate for admission to this school shall be that he shall have successfully pursued a course of undergraduate study in this college, or in some other maintaining an equivalent curriculum, to the close of the junior year.

3. *Resolved*, That students of the school who shall satisfactorily complete the studies of the first year shall be entitled, on examination and the recommendation of the faculty, to receive the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy; and those who complete the entire course of three years shall, on similar examination and recommendation, be entitled to receive the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

This was the formal institution of the now flourishing School of Political Science in Columbia College.

It will be observed that this legislation provides for a special system of instruction beginning with the senior year of the college course, *i. e.*, one year before students have regularly taken their baccalaureate degree, and ending two years after the time of that degree, or its special equivalent—the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy. The doctor's degree is thus placed within two years from the time of graduation. But it should be borne in mind that the last year of the Columbia College course is completely specialized in the interest of the first year of the School of Political Science. All the studies of that year are historico-

political studies for those seniors who elect them for the completion of their A. B. curriculum. We have already noticed the first elements of the School of Political Science in describing the senior lecture-courses of Professor Burgess, and the senior elective in political economy, conducted by Mr. R. M. Smith. The undergraduate foundations of the course, ending practically with the junior year, have also been mentioned; they embrace, in the ordinary A. B. curriculum, two hours a week, sophomore year, in the outlines of French and German history, taught now by Messrs. F. J. Goodnow and E. M. Smith; two hours a week, junior year, in English history and in the elements of political economy, taught by Mr. R. M. Smith.

"We begin," says Professor Burgess, in his account of the study of political sciences in Columbia College (*International Review*, April, 1882), "with the study of history, and devote the two years assigned to the department in the undergraduate course to laying historical groundwork. Here we employ the gymnastic method and seek the accomplishment of the gymnastic purpose, viz, the daily drill by recitation, question and answer from text-books of German, French, and English history, and elementary political economy, with the purpose of fixing and classifying in the memory of the student the elements of political geography, the chronology and outward frame of historic events, the biographies of historic characters, and definitions of political and economic terms. The completion of the junior year in the undergraduate curriculum marks the close of gymnastic study and preparation. The senior year in all our colleges of the first rank has become a real university year, both in the character and methods of the instruction there given and employed. We therefore draw the line in our system between the gymnasium and the university at the termination of the junior year, making the senior year of the college in these studies to correspond with the first year in the School of Political Science, and admitting to this school, as candidates for its degrees, all persons who have completed successfully the work of the first three years in any collegiate institution of the first rank in the United States, or an equivalent course in any foreign college, lyceum, or gymnasium, or who can pass successful examination upon all the studies of the undergraduate curriculum of this institution to the end of the junior year. * * *

With the change from the gymnasium to the university the *method* of instruction changes, as well as the subjects. The text-book, with its assigned lessons and daily drill upon the same, is discarded, as both cramping to the student and narrowing to the professor. We must get here nearer to sources and original material. We must go back of the treatises to the earliest documents, and learn to form from these our opinions, and to make from these our own hand-books."

The development of the School of Political Science into a three years' course necessitated the appointment of a special corps of instructors,

who, as already stated, were chiefly selected from "The Burgess School." All except Professor Alexander, Dr. De Leon, and Dr. Seligman are Amherst graduates. Professor Alexander is really the head of the philosophical department; but he lectures in the School of Political Science. Drs. De Leon and Seligman are both graduates of this new school. The present *personnel* of the department and the exact arrangement of the various branches of instruction—which is almost entirely by lectures—is shown by tabular views in the circular of information for 1886-'87.

TABULAR VIEWS OF THE THREE YEARS' COURSE.

FIRST YEAR.

FIRST SESSION.

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
1. 30- 2. 30	General Constitutional History of Europe, Prof. Burgess.	General Constitutional History of Europe, Prof. Burgess.	General Constitutional History of Europe, Prof. Burgess.	General Constitutional History of Europe, Prof. Burgess.	Bibliography, Mr. Baker.
2. 30- 3. 30	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	History of Political Theories, Prof. Alexander.
3. 30- 4. 30	History of Political Theories, Prof. Alexander.	Constitutional History of England, Prof. R. M. Smith.	History of Political Theories, Prof. Alexander.	Constitutional History of England, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political History of New York, Mr. Whitridge.

SECOND SESSION.

1. 30- 2. 30	Constitutional History of the United States, Prof. Burgess.	Constitutional History of the United States, Prof. Burgess.	Constitutional History of the United States, Prof. Burgess.	Constitutional History of the United States, Prof. Burgess.	Bibliography, Mr. Baker.
2. 30- 3. 30	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political Economy, Prof. R. M. Smith.	History of Political Theories, Prof. Alexander.
3. 30- 4. 30	History of Political Theories, Prof. Alexander.	Constitutional History of England, Prof. R. M. Smith.	History of Political Theories, Prof. Alexander.	Constitutional History of England, Prof. R. M. Smith.	Political History of New York, Mr. Whitridge.

SECOND YEAR,

FIRST SESSION.

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
1. 30- 2. 30	History of Roman Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.	History of Roman Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.	History of Roman Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.	History of Roman Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.	
2. 30- 3. 30	History of Roman Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.	Comparative Constitutional Law, Prof. Burgess.	Comparative Constitutional Law, Prof. Burgess.	Comparative Constitutional Law, Prof. Burgess.	History of Roman Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.
3. 30- 5. 30					Seminarium in Political Economy.

SECOND SESSION.

1. 30- 2. 30	Comparative Jurisprudence, Dr. Munroe Smith.	Comparative Jurisprudence, Dr. Munroe Smith.	Comparative Jurisprudence, Dr. Munroe Smith.	Comparative Jurisprudence Dr. Munroe Smith.	
2. 30- 3. 30	Comparative Jurisprudence, Dr. Munroe Smith.	Comparative Constitutional Law, Prof. Burgess.	Comparative Constitutional Law, Prof. Burgess.	Comparative Constitutional Law, Prof. Burgess.	Comparative Jurisprudence, Dr. Munroe Smith.
3. 30- 4. 30	History of Economic Theories, Dr. Seligman.	History of Economic Theories, Dr. Seligman.	History of Economic Theories, Dr. Seligman.		History of Economic Theories, Dr. Seligman.

THIRD YEAR.

FIRST SESSION.

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
2. 30- 3. 30	History of Diplomacy, Prof. Burgess.	Latin-American Diplomacy, Dr. De Leon.	International Private Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.	Latin-American Diplomacy, Dr. De Leon.	History of Diplomacy, Prof. Burgess.
3. 30- 4. 30	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.
4. 30- 5. 30					Seminarium in Political Economy.

SECOND SESSION.

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
2. 30- 3. 30	Public International Law, Prof. Burgess.	Latin-American Diplomacy, Dr. De Leon.	International Private Law, Dr. Munroe Smith.	Latin-American Diplomacy, Dr. De Leon.	Public International Law, Prof. Burgess.
3. 30- 4. 30	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.	Administrative Law, Mr. Goodnow.
4. 30- 5. 30	Social Science, Prof. R. M. Smith.		Social Science, Prof. R. M. Smith.		

PRESENT FACULTY OF INSTRUCTION.

Of the entire staff of nine instructors three are full professors in Columbia College: (1) John W. Burgess, Ph. D., LL. D., professor of constitutional and international history and law; (2) Archibald Alexander, A. M., Ph. D., professor of philosophy; (3) Richmond Mayo Smith (A. B., Amherst 1875), A. M., professor of political economy and social science (he also teaches English history). There is one adjunct professor of history, namely, Edmund Munroe Smith (A. B., Amherst 1874), A. M., J. U. D., who teaches French history, but is principally engaged in lecturing on Roman law and comparative jurisprudence. There is one permanent lecturer on administrative law—Frank J. Goodnow (A. B., Amherst 1879), LL. B., the successor of the lamented Clifford Rush Bateman, who died shortly after his preparation for this lectureship. There are also three prize lectureships, held by meritorious graduates of the School of Political Science or of the Law School, and yielding \$500 a year. The present incumbents are Daniel De Leon, LL. B., Ph. D., lecturer on Latin-American diplomacy (a unique feature of university instruction); Frederick W. Whitridge (A. B., Amherst 1874), A. M., LL. B., lecturer on the political history of New York; and Edwin R. A. Seligman, LL. B., Ph. D., lecturer on the history of political economy. These prize lecturers must give an annual series of at least twenty lectures. They hold for a three years' term, and may be reappointed. It is an admirable system for recruiting the faculty, or for encouraging scholarly tendencies on the part of the best graduates of the school.

LIBRARY OF HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.

One of the most useful members of the faculty of instruction in the School of Political Science is the special librarian—Geo. H. Baker (A. B., Amherst 1874), A. M.—who has enjoyed the best of German university training in the subjects which he represents. Mr. Baker gives one lecture a week upon bibliography. As described in the circular of information (School of Political Science) for 1886-'87, "The purpose of this course of lectures is to give, for the practical use of students and investigators, an account of the original sources for the study of history and political science. It gives, in introduction, a brief encyclopædic statement of the domain of political science and the several allied sciences or branches of study, with their mutual interrelations. It then takes up, by countries, the material which forms the record of the political, legal, and economic activity of the leading modern states, giving a short sketch of the historiography of each country; the special bibliographical works relating to the subject; then a description of all important collections of early chronicles and histories; collections of memoirs; collections and publications of historical and similar societies; general and special collections of treaties and diplomatic

papers; statistical collections and other economic publications; government and official publications, including public documents, parliamentary debates, statutes, law reports, and other collective works in the field of public and private law. It is intended to give the title, proper form of citation, history, character of these publications, and the way in which they are indexed and may be used. An account of the archives and public records of each state treated is also given, with a description of their calendars or indexes, printed and unprinted; their general character, arrangement, and regulations for use."

The importance and suggestiveness of this line of teaching can hardly be overestimated, in the present stage of academic instruction in the United States. Any student of history who has attended lectures in German universities knows well that the best information there acquired is of a bibliographical character. In the historical department at Heidelberg, one professor (Winkelmann) spends an entire semester, five hours a week, on the *Methodologie und Encyklopädie der Geschichtswissenschaften*, a course highly valued by the few who follow it. The great defect, however, in German exercises of this sort, is that the student rarely sees the books or collections that the lecturer describes. Such training should be carried on in the university library, in small classes, seated around a large table where all the works mentioned are actually displayed and may be handled by the student, during the lecture or after it. This method has been practiced by the writer in a lecture-room connected with the Peabody Library of 90,000 volumes, in Baltimore, and is perfectly feasible in any college library.

Columbia College has provided a special room for the library of history and political science, which now numbers about 15,000 volumes. This room adjoins the main library and is conveniently fitted with separate tables, desk-chairs, electric student-lamps, etc., for independent, secluded work. The special librarian sits outside in the main library, near the door leading to the reading-room of his department. He admits those only who have scholarly business there; he aids and advises students in their quest of materials; he knows his special library like a book of ready reference. This is the proper way to administer a department collection. No amount of cataloguing and classification, no perfunctory lecturing on bibliography, will fully avail their purpose without a good librarian who can carry an administrative system in his head, and keep the whole library at his fingers' ends.

The new library administration of Melvil Dewey (A. B., Amherst 1874¹), which, like the School of Political Science, has been grafted from young Amherst College upon the sturdy trunk of old Columbia (it proves its sturdy vitality by invigorating the grafts), is certainly beginning to mediate most admirably between its once scattered, chaotic

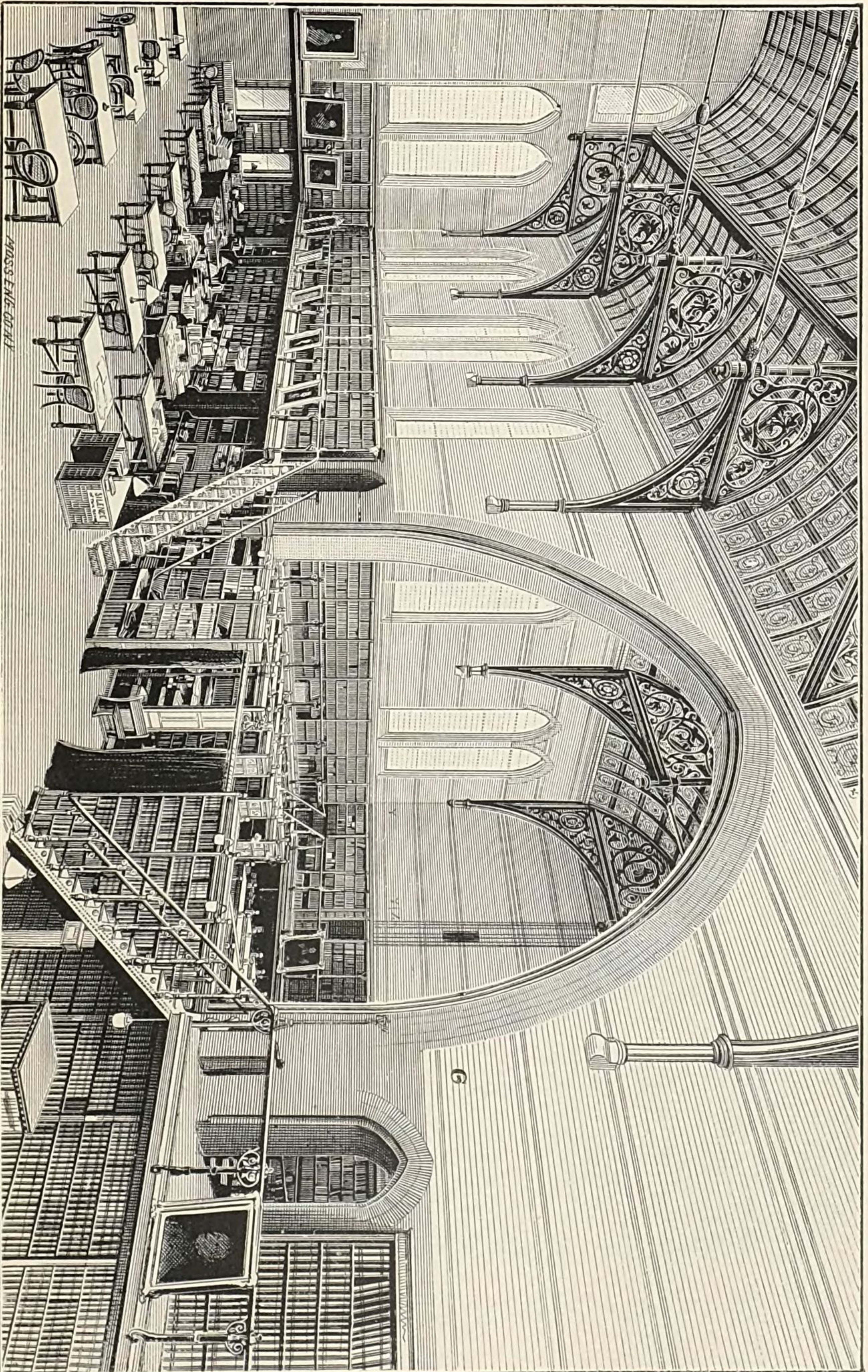
¹ Another graduate of Amherst in 1874, Mr. Walter Stanley Biscoe, has charge of the catalogue department and the general classification of the Columbia College Library.

collections of books and its present active corps of students. It aims to organize so thoroughly its literary resources in any given field, like history or political science, that they can be speedily massed upon any given point with the precision and certainty of a Prussian army corps, in the execution of a military manœuvre. At present, in many college libraries, the search for scattered books or pamphlets upon a given subject is like the hunt for a needle in a hay-stack; but with the Columbia system of library management, if perfectly carried out, every lost needle will become a needle-gun in the armory of science, ready with a thousand others for instant use. With such organization of knowledge, and with trained men to apply it, any department of science can go forth conquering and to conquer. Carlyle expressed only a half truth when he said, "the best modern university is a library of books," even if we concede him good books, a good librarian, and good readers. The best of libraries is not a modern university unless it becomes a laboratory of science, where fresh truth is demonstrated, under the influence of master minds, living or dead. This is the highest function of teachers and professors—to keep alive the scientific spirit, to breathe upon and kindle anew the sacred fire, as did the flamens of old. Columbia College has not been content with erecting a magnificent library building; that alone, even if crowded with books and with passive readers, would have been a mausoleum, and not a real university library. She has established in that beautiful building a vigorous school of political science, which is rapidly transforming both the library and the college into a modern university.

DOCTORS' THESES AT COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

Among the first fruits of Columbia's School of Political Science are the various doctors' theses which have been privately printed by the candidates, although not yet published to the world. The work is so valuable and suggestive to students of history and political science in this country, that it should certainly have a wider distribution. A beginning must be made in the line of scholastic publication, otherwise general progress will be impossible. The school of political science in Columbia College and the department of history and politics in the Johns Hopkins University have taken the lead in requiring doctors' dissertations in printed form; but the practice is growing elsewhere, in various parts of the country, and it will become general if fostered by a liberal distribution of printed theses to college libraries. It would be very advantageous if some system of library exchange could be arranged by the faculties of our colleges and universities, whereby, as in Germany, the doctors' theses of one institution could be seen in every other.

Among the doctors' theses now to be found in the Columbia College library, from the school of political science, are the following: A Sketch of the Constitutional History of Canada, by Thomas D. Rambaut, 1884;



COLUMBIA COLLEGE LIBRARY—MAIN READING ROOMS.



COLUMBIA COLLEGE LIBRARY—HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE LIBRARIAN'S DESK.

(2) Two Chapters on the Mediæval Guilds of England. An Essay in Economic History, by E. R. A. Seligman, 1884; (3) An Outline of Anglo-Saxon Law, by Harry F. Barrell, 1885 (a systematic treatise, worthy of comparison with the Harvard essays in Anglo-Saxon Law); (4) History of the Law of Aliens, by Abraham C. Bernheim, 1885; Constitution of the United States in Civil War and Reconstruction, by Archibald M. Dunning, 1885; (6) Political History of the Province of New York, by Herbert L. Satterlee, 1885; (7) A Sketch of the Negro in Politics, especially in South Carolina and Mississippi, by Frederick A. Bancroft, 1885; (8) Conflict of the East and West in Egypt, by John E. Bowen, 1886; (9) Taxation of Labor, by Charles B. Spahr, 1886.

ACADEMY OF POLITICAL SCIENCE.

In an article on the study of the political sciences in Columbia College, originally published in the *International Review*, April, 1882, there is the following description of the academy by Professor Burgess: "This is a voluntary association, composed of the president of the university, the faculties of law and political science, graduates of the School of Political science, and graduates of the School of Law, who have taken at least two years of the instruction in the School of Political Science, or an equivalent course in some foreign university. It recruits itself annually from these same sources. Its purpose is the cultivation and development, in finest and most minute detail, of the different branches and topics of the political sciences. This organization is the central point of our whole system. Upon it depends, for the most part, the perpetuation and increasing usefulness of our work. Not being a transient body of students, who reach only a certain point before they vanish from our control, but a permanent body of continually-growing scholars, this association forms the productive, ever-advancing element in our system. Whatever we may be able to *add* to the existing stock of political knowledge will proceed from it. Each of its members assumes the obligation to produce at least one original work each year, and read the same before the association at its regular meetings, which production then becomes the property of the academy, and may be published by it for the benefit of the public, provided a majority of the members deem it worthy of the same. From its labors, the library of the political sciences will receive its scientific classification by subjects, a journal of political science will be edited," &c. In the report on the School of Political Science for 1882, Professor Burgess speaks of the academy as a department of the school devoted to research, and he mentions thirteen original works produced by its members during that year: (1) Position and Limits of Political Science; (2) Financial History of the Revolution; (3) Extradition; (4) Cabinet Government; (5) Private Railways and Congressional Regulation; (6) Is Political Economy a Science? (7) South America, from the Congress to the Revolution; (8) History of the Convention System; (9) The Presi-

dential Succession; (10) A Review of Von Holst's Constitutional History of the United States; (11) The Roman and the Common Law as Products of Aryan Jurisprudence; (12) Position of the Jury in the Modern State; (13) The Electoral College. The academy now numbers forty active and six honorary members. It meets fortnightly, "on the first and third Mondays of each month," and is likely to furnish the best and most original contributions to

THE POLITICAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY.

This magazine, edited by the faculty of the School of Political Science, was instituted in the spring of 1886, and is intended to be an avenue of publication, not only for the best original work of the faculty and academy of the above school, but also for such independent contributions from outside sources as may prove acceptable. The general scope of the magazine, as indicated by its prospectus, is to furnish "a field for the discussion of political, economic, and legal questions. The legal questions treated will be principally questions of public law—constitutional, administrative, and international. The point of view and the method of treatment will be scientific. At the same time it will be the effort of the editors to have the results of scientific investigation presented in an intelligible manner and in readable form. The topics discussed will be primarily such as are of present interest in the United States. But the scheme of the Quarterly excludes neither European history, which is the history of our own civilization, nor contemporaneous events in any part of the world which throw light upon the problems and tendencies of our own country."

Several numbers of the new Quarterly have already appeared. A large proportion of the articles are written by representatives of Columbia College, and may be generally characterized as a scholarly treatment of political and economic topics of scientific and semi-popular interest. The reviews of current literature in the political and economic fields are valuable to the special student, and the annual bibliographies of history, politics, economics, and public law, with descriptive notices and references to the best criticism, will prove very helpful.

CHAPTER IV.

HISTORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.¹

"The University of Michigan," said President Haven in his inaugural address, "is the oldest, largest, and most flourishing of the class of institutions that may rightly be regarded as State universities." This statement was true for America in 1863, and it is true to-day. In its origin, the University of Michigan is at once a National and a State institution. It owes its existence primarily to that far-sighted national policy, first declared in the ordinance of 1787, whereby it was provided for the great Northwestern Territory that "schools and the means of education should forever be encouraged." The principle was reasserted upon the organization of the Territory of Michigan in 1804-'05, and took practical form in the reservation, by act of Congress, of a township of land for the support of a university. Its first foundations were therefore national.

¹ Upon the special subject of this chapter the writer has found but little pioneer work, and has been obliged to make his own path. Professor Charles Kendall Adams, who for many years well represented the subject, once wrote to the author: "So far as I know nothing has ever been written in reference to the history of the historical department at the University of Michigan. The department has a history, however, that is very interesting, and that I think is of some importance." The writer is indebted to President Adams for the use of his excellent private collection of documents and catalogues relating to the subject, and to Assistant Professor Hudson, and the University of Michigan for additional materials.

Authorities on the early history of the University of Michigan are numerous and suggestive, chief among them Professor Andrew Ten Brook's work on State Universities; Professor Charles Kendall Adams' Historical Sketch of the University of Michigan, prepared by request of the Commissioner of Education in 1876; Professor Adams' article on Michigan University in Richardson and Clark's College Book; Miss Lucy Salmon's article on Education in Michigan during the Territorial Period, published in the magazine called "Education," September, 1884; Dr. George W. Knight's monograph on the History and Management of Federal Land Grants for Education in the Northwest Territory (see Papers of the American Historical Association, vol. i, No. 3, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York); C. W. Butterfield and A. B. Palmer on the University of Michigan, in the Magazine of Western History, December, 1886; Elizabeth M. Ferrand's History of the University of Michigan; an article in the Western Magazine, June, 1880; the Chicago Herald, November 6, 1886, article on "Two University Men"; Chicago Daily Tribune, November 20, 1886, on The University of Michigan and its Half Century's Record.

The University of Michigan celebrated the completion of its first half century in June, 1887. This memorable occasion excited great interest in the history of the institution, and should be followed by the publication of a memorial volume, with a complete bibliography of the university and of the publications of all its professors

ORGANIZATION OF THE UNIVERSITY.

No steps were taken by the Territorial government towards university organization until the year 1817, when an act was passed establishing the "University of Michigania," and providing for thirteen professorships, including one for the historical sciences, or "*diegetica*," as they were called in the pedantic scheme¹ of Judge Woodward, the framer of the act. The method of supplying the faculty was unique. A Scotch Presbyterian minister, John Monteith, was given six professorships, in addition to the presidency, while Gabriel Richard, the Roman Catholic bishop of the Territory, took the six remaining chairs. The arrangement was at least an augury of religious toleration.

In 1821 this preliminary organization was repealed and a board of twenty-one trustees, including the Scotch parson and the Catholic bishop, was appointed by the Territorial legislature, with full powers to organize the university. But the Territory had no ready money for the encouragement of the higher education. The university lands had not yet been selected. The choice of a township was so restricted that good lands could not be found in one block. Again Congress came to the aid of an educational cause, and in 1826 granted two townships in place of one, with the privilege of selecting the entire amount of land in detached portions from any part of the public domain in Michigan not already granted. Upon this wise and generous provision, and upon the good choice made of lands, rests the national endowment of the University of Michigan.

The proceeds arising from the sale of the two townships amounted to about \$450,000. Even this sum, upon which the university draws annual interest from the State, is less than one-half of what might have been realized by better management and more prudent delay in the sale of lands. The State subsequently made some economic atonement to its university by the twentieth of a mill tax. "It was not until 1867," says President Angell, "when the university had already become strong and renowned, when the pupils were more numerous than those of any other institution in the land, that the State was called to give the first penny to its support, and then the whole appropriation was \$15,000 a year, which was just one-twentieth of a mill tax on the appraisal of the taxable property of this rich commonwealth. The total sum received by tax for the university, and drawn from the State treasury, down to January, 1879, is in round numbers \$469,000. If we compute this as distributed over the entire time since the foundation of the university we shall find that it is an average of \$12,000 a year, or one fifty-second of a mill on the present valuation. A man who is taxed on \$1,000 would pay not quite 2 cents a year."²

¹ For a detailed account of this extraordinary scheme of education, see Miss Salmon's interesting article (noted in the above bibliography), pp. 12-15.

² President James B. Angell, address on the Higher Education, 1879.

PRUSSIAN IDEAS OF EDUCATION IN MICHIGAN.¹

Michigan was admitted into the Union in 1836. That date marks also the formal inauguration of a State policy of education closely modeled after that of Prussia. Up to this time education in Michigan had been a feeble experiment in various localities, with no organization, no directing mind or co-ordinating power. With the appointment of the Rev. John D. Pierce as superintendent of public instruction began the first attempt to institute a thorough system of education. It began with primary schools and ended with a State university. Mr. Pierce had become acquainted with the Prussian system of education through a careful study of Cousin's Report upon the state of public instruction in Prussia, a document which proved quite as suggestive for France as for America. Mr. Pierce prepared for the legislature of Michigan a report of his own, which is the historical basis of the present educational policy of that intelligent State. After recommending the proper co-ordination of primary, secondary, and higher education, he advised the organization of the university with three departments of instruction: (1) Literature and the arts; (2) Law; (3) Medicine. He urged that the appointments to the faculties should not be made upon sectarian but upon scientific grounds. All these ideas were approved by the legislature. The University of Michigan was established by action of the State, March 18, 1837, with a board of regents, appointed chiefly by the governor and confirmed by the State senate.

Before the university was formally opened in 1841, an attempt was made to emancipate it from political control. It was recommended by a legislative committee in 1840 that the entire management be intrusted to a board of regents. Striking wisdom was shown in these words: "A board of experienced regents can manage the funds of the university better than any legislature; and the faculty can manage the business of education—the interior of the college—better than any regents." It took the State of Michigan twelve years to discover, experimentally, the truth of this proposition. In 1852, a board of eight regents was made entirely independent of the legislature by intrusting their election to the people, somewhat after the manner of electing judges, for a term of eight years, two regents being chosen at each biennial election.

It is worthy of note that the University of Michigan, during the first ten years of its history, tried the German system of faculty government, with an annual president elected by that body. The governor of

¹ For interesting evidence that the whole educational system of Michigan was based upon Prussian ideas, see the Inaugural Discourse of Dr. Henry P. Tappan, 1852, pp. 30-39; Hon. Francis W. Shearman, on the System of Public Instruction and Primary School Law of Michigan; Rev. John D. Pierce, on the Origin and Progress of the Michigan School System (Pioneer Collections, vol. i); Rev. E. O. Haven's Address, June 26, 1854, on the Increased Mental Activity of the Age, pp. 21-2; and the successive Calendars of the University of Michigan after 1852, which repeatedly assert: "The system of public instruction adopted by the State of Michigan is copied from the Prussian, acknowledged to be the most perfect in the world."

the State, with the board of regents and the superintendent of public instruction, stood in much the same relation to the University at Ann Arbor as does a German sovereign prince with his *Cultus-minister* to a State university in Germany. The prince is the rector *ex officio*; the pro-rector, or acting president, is elected for an annual term by the university senate, or assembly of faculties, each of which has its own elected dean. The republican system of government did not work very satisfactorily in the University of Michigan. Corporate instincts in America are curiously monarchical. The new constitution of Michigan in 1851 made it the duty of the board of regents to appoint a chancellor for the university. Upon the recommendation of George Bancroft, the historian, they chose for this responsible position the Rev. Henry P. Tappan, D. D., of New York, who had been the most prominent champion of the idea of establishing a real university in New York City (see his work on "University Education"). This active, energetic, well-trained man brought new life to the University of Michigan. The institution had flagged somewhat in popular interest; the number of its students had fallen off; a more vigorous and aggressive leadership was imperatively needed.

The inaugural address of Dr. Tappan, December 21, 1852, marks the beginning of a new era in the history of the university. And yet, like most good reforms, his was a return to the original idea of the institution, the idea advanced by the first superintendent of public instruction, John D. Pierce, that the University of Michigan should be the roof and crown of a State system of education modeled after that of Prussia. His address, while reviewing the ideas of Mr. Pierce, raised them to new life by suggesting plans for their practical realization. He himself had studied the organization of German gymnasia and German universities and understood the exact condition of things at Ann Arbor. "We are a university faculty," he said, "giving instruction in a college or gymnasium" (p. 40). He saw clearly that the "gymnastic or collegiate course" was to be so perfected and amplified by scientific and other studies that the university should gradually rise above the gymnasium. He seemed to foresee that, with proper organization and development, "we shall not only know where to begin and where to end this intermediate course (college or gymnasium), but we shall also be under no temptation of pressing the student with overmuch study and thus inducing superficial scholarship. The university will then be ever before him with its ample preparations, inviting him to a ripened scholarship in whatever department he may select" (p. 49).

In the first catalogue published during President Tappan's régime is clearly defined his ideal of a university: "A system of education established on the Prussian principles of education cannot discard that which forms the culmination of the whole. . . An institution cannot deserve the name of a university which does not aim, in all the material of learning, in the professorships which it establishes, and in the whole scope of

its provisions, to make it possible for every student to study what he pleases, and to any extent he pleases. It is proposed, therefore, at as early a day as practicable, to open courses of lectures for those who have graduated at this or other institutions, and for those who in other ways have made such preparation as may enable them to attend upon them with advantage. These lectures, in accordance with the educational systems of Germany and France, will form the proper development of the university, in distinction from the college or gymnasium now in operation." (Catalogue for 1852-'53, p. 21.) University courses of lectures are proposed on page 26 of the first catalogue, which are identical with those recommended in his inaugural address, page 49, and in his work on "University Education," pages 113 and 114. Among the immediate recommendations for strengthening the philosophical faculty, in addition to new scientific courses, the erection of an observatory, &c., was one for "a professor of History and Political Economy." The proper development of the philosophical faculty and of a lecture system, like that already obtaining in the medical department, with the addition of a law school, would complete the university; for a theological school could not well be established in a non-sectarian or State institution.

BEGINNINGS OF HISTORICAL INSTRUCTION.

To a student of institutional history it is by no means uninteresting to trace out the first beginnings of a great university. Nor is it altogether a thankless task to inquire into the origin of one of its best departments of instruction. The earliest catalogues of the University of Michigan show no provision for the teaching of History beyond the venerable course in Greek and Roman Antiquities (Eschenbach's) in connection with the classical department. Xenophon, Herodotus, Thucydides, Livy, and Tacitus were, however, good historical pabulum for an infant university. In the department of intellectual and moral science lay the original germs of all subsequent political teaching at Ann Arbor. Story on the Constitution and Wayland's Political Economy were good beginnings. To the surprise of one examining these old catalogues, a "Professor of Logic, Rhetoric, and the *Philosophy of History*" appears as early as 1846. The Rev. Daniel D. Whedon,¹ A. M. (soon D. D.), taught the subject last named for the third term of junior year. Requirements in history for admission to the university are mentioned in 1848—"Keightley's Grecian History to the time of Alexander the Great and Roman to the time of the Empire." Ancient History was taught for one term freshman year; the History of the Middle Ages for one term sophomore year; and Modern History for one term of junior year. This was the maximum of history under Dr. Whedon's benevolent instruction.

¹After Dr. Whedon's connection with the University of Michigan (1845-52) he devoted his attention to pastoral work, and for many years was the editor of the Methodist Quarterly Review.

With the inauguration of President Tappan came the first suggestion of a distinct professorship in History and Political Economy. The full idea of a department embracing these subjects was not immediately realized. The president himself, as in many American colleges, retained political economy in his own department of intellectual and moral philosophy, although the arrangement was spoken of as provisional. One good feature of the course in economics was the preparation of original essays by the class "on subjects connected with the course." History appears to have evolved anew from the classical department. The Rev. E. O. Haven, professor of the Latin Language and Literature and afterwards president of the University, 1863-69, taught classical history to classical students, and general history to scientific students, throughout the first year. "Besides a careful examination of a good text-book on general history," says the catalogue for 1853-'54, "some lectures will be given, and the attention of the student directed to various books of reference and other collateral helps." In 1855 Dr. Haven emerged from the classical department as "Professor of History and English Literature," an exceedingly good combination of subjects for an historical professor, and second only to history and political science. Professors Frieze and Boise now stood firm for classical history, representing, as they did with great ability, Latin and Greek literatures respectively. Historical lectures were given in the Latin department; historical essays were required in the Greek department. Niebuhr, Arnold, Heeren, Schmidt, and Pütz were recommended for the study of Roman history; Becker's *Charicles*, Grote, and Thirwall for Greek history.

The institution of a department of History and English Literature, in 1855, at the University of Michigan was one of the first academic recognitions of history in this country. At this time Harvard stood alone in the honor of a distinctly endowed historical professorship, which had been instituted in 1839, with Jared Sparks as the first incumbent, and which, after a short interregnum, was conferred upon Henry W. Torrey in 1856. Yale had no historical professorship until the year 1865, when Mr. A. M. Wheeler was appointed to that chair. Columbia College called Dr. Francis Lieber to its new professorship of History and Political Science in 1857, the year after Dr. Haven's first retirement from academic life. During the first of his two years of service in the historical department Dr. Haven appears to have taught history to scientific students throughout their freshman course, devoting the first of the three terms to chronology and general history; the second to special history, embracing the leading epochs, with particular attention to modern times; the third term was given to the philosophy of history.

In 1856 came the division of the university year into semesters. General history was then taught to scientific students during the first semester of their second year. During the second semester of the fourth

year it is stated "a course of lectures will be given on the philosophy of history, *properly in the university course*, but which may be attended by the seniors in both departments." This passage marks not only the advance of history from freshman scientific to senior classical standing, but also the very first transition from the college proper to the University proper, as well as the earliest dawn of the elective system in Ann Arbor, if we exclude the choice between classical and scientific courses which began through President Tappan's influence in 1852, at the very beginning of his régime and at the opening of the college or gymnastic curriculum.

Among the other "elective studies" offered to seniors in 1856 was astronomy, with Professor Brünnow, who had been the favorite pupil and assistant of Encke, the astronomer, of Berlin, and who became the teacher of James C. Watson, of the class of 1856, the professorial successor, in 1863, of his German master. The appointment of Dr. Brünnow, in 1854, as director of the new observatory (the first fruit of the idea suggested in President Tappan's inaugural address) would alone justify the view that his régime was the transition period of Michigan from the college to the university. It was once said by *The Chronicle*, of the University of Michigan, in an item which caught the eye of the present writer, "Professor Francis Brünnow, of Leipsic, came to Ann Arbor in 1854 to fill the chair of astronomy. For a time he lectured to only one student, but afterwards he called these lectures the most important of his life, for that student was James C. Watson," the distinguished astronomer and discoverer of new worlds. It must have been this very senior elective course in 1856¹ which determined the career of Professor Watson, for, in 1855, astronomy was a required course for juniors when Watson was a junior. Thus through one solitary student the German university ideal of President Tappan was first conspicuously realized. It was perhaps potential in all the other elective courses offered that year, 1856, in chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, German philosophy, Greek, Latin, and "Lectures on History," but the results are not so clearly apparent. In history, however, the progress of the university idea dates from the first elective course by Dr. Haven. Its full realization came through Professor Andrew D. White and his pupil, Charles Kendall Adams. In 1857 Dr. Haven resigned his position, although at a later date he became president of the University of Michigan, of the Northwestern University at Evanston, and afterwards of Syracuse University. In the interval between the resignation of Dr. Haven and the coming of Mr. White, John Lord lectured on history at Ann Arbor for about two months.

¹ The catalogue for 1856 announces "two courses of instruction, one elementary for the undergraduate students, and another for students of a higher grade, who, together with the science of astronomy, will be taught the use of the instruments in the observatory." This latter was the university course taken by one "watcher of the skies."

NON-SECTARIAN APPOINTMENTS OF PROFESSORS.

Perhaps the very best evidence of the university ideal cherished by President Tappan is the character of the professors who were added to the various faculties during his régime: Boise and Frieze in the classical department; Brünnow and Watson in astronomy; Palmer, Ford, and Armor in the school of medicine; Walker, Campbell, Cooley, in the law school; and Andrew D. White in history. These men were all appointed for their special scientific attainments. President Tappan, when he retired from the university, could say, with the pride of conscious truth, that no appointment had been made during his administration "with any reference to denominational connection." He adds: "After Dr. Brünnow reached Ann Arbor, I, for the first time, asked him whether he were a Catholic or a Protestant. Dr. Haven, who brought Professor Winchell's name before the board of regents, affirmed that he was ignorant of his denominational connection. Professor Frieze was known to be an Episcopalian, but he was elected through the instrumentality of Professor Boise, himself a Baptist. Dr. Ford and Professor Wood were elected while we were entirely ignorant of their denominational connection. Messrs. Peck and Trowbridge (from West Point) were elected without any knowledge on our part of their religious predilections. Mr. White, although known to be an attendant of the Episcopal Church, was elected on the recommendation of the Congregational president and many others of the Congregational clergymen and professors at New Haven." Such was the truly catholic spirit of that brotherhood of scholars into which Professor Andrew D. White was ushered in 1857 with testimonials from his *Alma Mater*.

PROFESSOR ANDREW D. WHITE.¹

Andrew Dickson White was born in Homer, N. Y., November 7, 1832. His parents were Episcopalians, of a truly catholic type, and from them doubtless the son derived that catholicity of mind and heart which has characterized his entire life. His family removed to Syracuse in 1835. The growth of this town, early famous for its salt springs and the extension of its business, its banks, and its railroads, were the origin of more than one family fortune. With other men of enterprise, the Whites of Syracuse have flourished for successive generations. The name is still prominent in the business and social circles of that growing and attractive city.

Mr. White's fondness for historical studies was determined before he went to college by the reading of Scott's novels and D'Aubigné's History of the Reformation. He entered the sophomore class of Yale College in 1851, and graduated in 1853, with the De Forrest medal for

¹ Facts concerning Mr. White's life have been gathered from an article in the *Deutsche Rundschau*, October, 1879, by H. S., "Ein Amerikanisches Studienleben," and from an article in *The Forum*, February, 1887, by Mr. White himself, "How I was educated."

an oration upon modern diplomacy. His commencement part was upon the character and public services of John Quincy Adams. "Upon both occasions," says the Hon. Wayne MacVeagh, in a letter read at the banquet given by the citizens of Syracuse to Mr. White on the eve of his departure as American minister to Berlin, "he gave abundant promise of the intellectual and moral qualities which have distinguished him ever since. His choice of subjects, as well as his method of treating them, satisfied all who heard him that, if his life was spared, his career was sure to be full of honor to himself and usefulness to his country."

While there was undoubtedly a natural tendency in Mr. White's mind toward historical and political studies, the educational influence of Dr. Woolsey is the most conspicuous fact in the young man's college career. At this period Dr. Woolsey represented in Northern academic life much the same spirit as Francis Lieber represented at the College of South Carolina. A desire for further culture by travel and study impelled Mr. White to go to Europe. After a brief visit to England he settled down for a year's historical study in Paris. He heard lectures at the Sorbonne and at the Collège de France. Among his professors was Laboulaye, the distinguished publicist, politician, and historian, whose influence upon his American pupil is clearly marked. One can almost believe that Mr. White is an historical reproduction of this type of a public man and scholar. While in Paris the young American read Thierry, Mignet, Thiers, and Châteaubriand, and received that decided bent toward French history and the French revolution which is clearly the dominant idea in Mr. White's historical work. He visited the Hôtel des Invalides and talked with the old soldiers of Napoleon. Vacations were spent in rambles through northern, western, and central France—through Picardy, Normandy, Brittany, and Touraine—where he studied places of historic interest and acquired that taste for architecture and art which is so marked in Mr. White's educational career at Ann Arbor and Ithaca.

Mr. White early conceived the idea of writing an American history of the French Revolution. He is said to have spent one entire winter in a study of the columns of *Le Moniteur*, with the view of collecting every scrap of information relating to the French system of *assignats*, or paper money. At the close of his winter's work he feared he had thrown away his time upon a profitless subject; but the information which the young man had laboriously collected from that ancient file of the *Moniteur* afterward became of the greatest practical service to his own State and country. During a great crisis in our financial history Mr. White, then a member of the New York legislature, showed from French experience the dangers of a reckless issue of paper currency. So marked was the impression made that he was afterward invited to address a Congressional committee upon the same subject. Any student who would see the ripened fruit of that earliest of special studies

by Andrew D. White, in Paris, would do well to examine the monograph entitled "Inflation in France; how it came, what it brought, and how it ended" (New York, D. Appleton, 1876). The monograph is also published among the tracts issued by the Society for Political Education. It is an excellent illustration of the special method, and should be read in connection with President White's plea for Studies in General History and in the History of Civilization. (See papers of the American Historical Association, Vol. I., No. 2.) While in Paris Mr. White began his collections of original materials for a special study of the French Revolution, a collection probably now unrivaled in America. His private reading took a wide range in modern Continental history, and it is fair to presume that his natural predilection for this great field of historical study was strongly developed by his sojourn in Paris.

After a year spent in France, Mr. White went to St. Petersburg as attaché of the American legation, and lived in the household of Mr. Seymour, the American minister. It was the time of the Crimean war. St. Petersburg naturally afforded a good vantage-ground for observing the course of European politics. But Mr. White did not neglect purely historical studies. He read Guizot's History of Civilization in France, which has proved epoch-making in many a student's life. The history of Russia, also, and of his own country attracted his special attention. After seven months thus spent in the Russian capital, Mr. White proceeded to Berlin and matriculated in the great Prussian university. There he heard lectures from Lepsius, the Egyptologist; Boeckh, the specialist in classical antiquities; Ritter, the comparative geographer; Von Raumer and Von Ranke, the historians. These influences affected him less powerfully than those which had first impressed his plastic mind, namely, French professors and the reading of French literature. While thoroughly appreciating German scholarship and profoundly admiring German character, Mr. White represents French training rather than Teutonic. He was brought up, so to speak, at the feet of D'Aubigné, Guizot, Thierry, Mignet, Thiers, and Laboulaye. There is a certain largeness of view, a certain clearness, directness, and force of style—a certain passion for general results and positive conclusions, which mark the French habit of mind. Matthew Arnold would call it lucidity. It is an old Roman quality which Germany has not yet fully learned. It is a quality which in political science can still be best acquired in Paris, a fact which American students are in danger of forgetting.

Leaving Germany in the spring of 1856, Mr. White visited Italy in company with Henry S. Frieze, who had already become professor of Latin and an interpreter of classical culture in the University of Michigan. This visit to Italy deepened and strengthened in Mr. White the culture already acquired in France. Not only the greatness of old Rome, republican and imperial, but the political condition of modern Italy made a profound impression upon his mind. The artistic creations of the Italian renaissance brought a new impulse into his study

of history, an impulse which was soon to be communicated to the youth of Michigan. Returning homeward by way of the south of France and there reviewing the splendid monuments of Roman architecture, Mr. White became more than ever impressed with the significance of Roman influence in European civilization. His love of art, and especially of architecture, was increased by a further study of mediæval cathedrals and town halls.

In the summer of 1856, after nearly three years abroad, Mr. White attended the reunion of his class at Yale. "While lounging with my classmates in the college yard I heard some one say that President Wayland, of Brown University, was speaking in the alumni hall. Going to the door, I looked within; and saw upon the platform an old man, heavy-browed, with spectacles resting upon the top of his head. Just at that moment he said, very impressively, that in his opinion the best field of work for graduates was in the West; that the country was shortly to arrive at 'a switching-off place' toward good or evil; that the West was to hold the balance of power, and to determine whether the country should prove a blessing or a curse in human history; and he upheld the claims of the West upon the best work of college men." Mr. White says that speech settled a great question for him. "My old Yale friends," Mr. White continues, "were kind enough to tender me a position for the building up of their school of art; but my belief was in the value of historical studies. The words of Wayland rang in my ears, and I went to the University of Michigan. The work there was a joy to me from first to last. My relations with my students of that period, before I had become distracted from them by the cares of an executive position, were among the most delightful of my life. And then began, perhaps, the most real part of my education. I learned the meaning of the proverb *docendo discas*. I found active, energetic Western men in my classes, ready to discuss historical questions; and I found that, in order to keep up my part of such discussions and classroom duties, I must work as I had never worked before. The education I received from my classes at the University of Michigan was perhaps the most useful of all."

Mr. White was called to the professorship of history and English literature, made vacant by the resignation of Dr. Haven. The effect of Professor White's historical lectures at Ann Arbor was most remarkable. It was like the coming of the Greek Chrysoloras from Constantinople to Florence, from the East to the West. The American professor brought the Renaissance to a new world, to the great Northwest. He came in the first flush of early manhood from the great centers of European culture and politics. He felt the joy of existence, the stir of the world. His lectures communicated his own feeling to the students of the University. All felt as Ulrich von Hutten, the humanist, said of the revival of learning: Minds are awakening; studies are blooming; it is a joy to live.

Charles Kendall Adams, a favorite pupil of Mr. White and his successor both as professor at Ann Arbor and as president at Ithaca, thus writes concerning this wonderful spring-time of historical culture in the University of Michigan: "He came to Ann Arbor fresh from European studies, and he entered upon his labors with that peculiar enthusiasm which is instantly caught by students, and is perhaps the most successful element of all good teaching. His instruction in history was a genuine revelation to those who had been accustomed to perfunctory text-book work and the hearing of dry and colorless lectures. The exceptional excellence of his instruction consisted largely of the spirit which he infused into his students. He had in a remarkable degree the rare gift of seizing upon the most important principles and causes and presenting them in such a manner as to illuminate the whole course of events with which they were connected. He not only instructed, but, what was even more important, he inspired. While he remained in his chair perhaps no study in the University was pursued with so much enthusiasm by the mass of students as was that of history."¹

In a private letter to the writer of this report President Adams says: "President White, in 1857, brought an enthusiasm to his new chair that sent a sort of historical glow through all the veins and arteries of the University. This was done mainly through his lectures, which combined instruction and inspiration in a very remarkable degree." It seems like descending from Olympus to come down from these heights of personal observation to a documentary study of details. In the catalogues for the first decade after Professor White's coming there are but few changes in the general plan of work, which was well developed as early as 1859. "In this department" (History), says the catalogue for that year, "an effort will be made *First*, to conduct the student through a careful review of General History; *Secondly*, To exercise him in original investigation and close criticism of important periods and noted characters; *Thirdly*, To give some insight into the Philosophy of History." The most noteworthy and patriotic addition to this general plan was introduced in the following year, 1860, just before the outbreak of the civil war, when it was proposed "*to lay the foundation for a thorough study of the political and constitutional history of our country.*" This was one of the first steps towards the introduction of American history as a distinct branch of instruction in our Northern States.

PROFESSOR WHITE'S ORGANIZATION OF THE HISTORICAL DEPARTMENT.

It is worth while to notice the details of Professor White's general plan of historical study, for no department of history or political science can ever be properly organized without regard to the best experience and without the most careful attention to elementary facts.

To those students who entered the University without classical preparation, Professor White recommended "an acquaintance with one or all of the following works": Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Em-*

¹ Richardson and Clark, *College Book*, p. 348. C. K. Adams on the University of Michigan.

pire, Grote's History of Greece, Arnold's History of Rome, Merivale's History of Rome, Merivale's Rome under the Cæsars. Provision was made for ancient history in the classical course by Professors Boise and Frieze, not only by the reading of classical historians, Xenophon, Thucydides, Livy, and Tacitus, but also in the Greek department, by required English essays on historical topics and in the Latin department by lectures on the history, literature, and antiquities of Rome. There appear to have been no requirements in classical history for admission to the University until the year 1868, under the régime of Professor C. K. Adams, but ancient and modern geography were early exacted.

During the first semester of the first year Modern History was studied with Lord's Manual for the text-book, which for a short time, was exchanged for Weber's Outlines, which had been translated for American students by Professor Bowen of Harvard College; but the use of Lord was soon resumed. The second semester of the first year was given to the completion of Modern History, with Mignet's History of the French Revolution for a hand-book. This author, Mr. White continued to recommend to his students as long as he lectured on History at Cornell University. Ancient History, with Schmitz's Manual, was also studied the second semester of the first or Freshman year. Schmitz was a pupil of Niebuhr, and settled in Edinburgh as a teacher of the classics, where he became an exponent of German views of Roman history, second only to Dr. Arnold of Rugby. In connection with these studies, Professor White made his classes pay the closest attention to physical, political, and historical geography, the very best foundation for all historical study.

To students of the second year no formal instruction was at first given; but, after 1860, Professor White appears to have condensed his course in Modern History and to have transferred it from Freshman year to the second semester Sophomore year, using Robertson's Introduction to the Life of Charles V and Lord's Modern History for text-books. Meantime the professor extended historical work to the first year of the scientific department, employing Greene's History of the Middle Ages for the first semester, and, for the second, the same authors as for the second semester in the Sophomore course, namely, Robertson and Lord. In connection with the regular course of the first and second years were recommended the following books: Bancroft's History of the United States; Ranke's History of the Popes; D'Aubigné's History of the Reformation; Robertson's Life of Charles V; Hume, from Henry VII to James II; Macaulay's Essays; Vaughan's History; Macaulay's History; Hallam's Constitutional History of England; Thiers' History of the French Revolution.

During the third year, instruction was given to both classical and scientific students in the philosophy of history, with Guizot's History of Civilization in Europe as a text-book. The use of this valuable work, which has probably been used more than any other text-book for advanced or senior courses in American colleges, undoubtedly best rep-

resents the transition of Professor White's own historical training at Yale, enlarged by travel and European culture, to a western environment. Undoubtedly he taught Guizot with a fresh and truly catholic spirit, giving life to the great subject which the French author expounds, and a broader horizon to historical study than American students had ever known. In connection with the third year's work were recommended, as almost indispensable, Guizot's History of Civilization in France, that larger and yet more special work than Guizot's Lectures on Civilization in Europe, together with Sir James Stephen's Lectures.

The fourth year, during the first semester, History was offered by Professor White as an elective to both classical and scientific students, and it is safe to presume that they all took it. In this series of lectures on general history it was the Professor's aim "to group naturally and bind firmly the facts and thoughts brought out during the previous course." He also gave a course of lectures, the second half-year, to graduate students, candidates for the master's degree, upon the History of England, with special reference to the growth of the British Constitution. It was here, in his general and special courses for advanced students, that Professor White's best and most original historical work was done. Here was brought forth the fruit of his own special studies on the history of England, Italy, France, and particularly of the French Revolution. Here, undoubtedly, was first begun the careful preparation of those comprehensive and suggestive lectures on the continental history of Europe, represented in their full development by the elaborate collections of published briefs or topics, which have been examined by the writer of this report with great interest and profit.

During the second semester of senior year, both classical and scientific students, and also candidates for the master's degree, were offered an elective in constitutional history and constitutional law by Professor T. M. Cooley, of the Law School. The design of the course was "to illustrate English and American Constitutional Law by its history; to explain the guarantees of civil and religious liberty in America; and to point out the line of division between the national and State constitutional powers." The scientific development of these early courses by Judge Cooley the world now enjoys in his great treatise on Constitutional Limitations and in his Hand-book on the Constitution.

PROFESSOR CHARLES KENDALL ADAMS.

In 1861 Charles Kendall Adams was graduated, as a bachelor of arts, from the University of Michigan. The following year he took a graduate course, and one year later was employed as instructor in History and as assistant librarian in the University. In 1864 he became instructor in Latin as well as in History. The first noticeable modification of the historical department, after the entrance of Mr. Adams, was the introduction of Eliot's or Patton's History of the United States for the second semester of the Freshman scientific course. Modern History

(Lord and Robertson) was crowded back, for scientific students, into the first semester, and Mediæval History was dropped altogether. In 1866, Professor White's name¹ disappears from the faculty of instruction and Charles K. Adams appears as assistant professor of History and Latin. The following year, 1867-'68, he was made professor of History and entered upon the full inheritance of honors and responsibilities left him by Professor White, president of the newly founded Cornell University.

Important modifications in the historical work at the University of Michigan followed the appointment of Professor Adams. In 1868 History was again emphasized in the requirements for admission to the University. A knowledge of the outlines of Roman history from the foundation of the city to the battle of Actium, and of Grecian history from the beginning of the Persian war to the death of Alexander, was exacted. Not only classical history, but the history of the United States to the close of the Revolutionary war was demanded. This combination of ancient and modern requirements was a great step forward; indeed, it was a greater advance than most American colleges have since made. Physical geography, with ancient and modern political geography, was one of the subjects for examination by the historical department—a natural and proper arrangement. Even candidates for the scientific courses were required to pass an historical examination, at first upon the history of the United States, but finally upon some manual of general history, like Swinton's, Anderson's, or Freeman's General Sketch of European History.

Greater attention was given to ancient history during the first half of the academic, and even in the beginning of the scientific, course. Smith's Greek History and Liddell's or Merivale's Roman History were taught to Freshmen by the professors of the Greek and Latin languages, respectively. More and more stress appears to have been laid upon this work. "During the first two years of the course," the catalogues repeat, "an effort is made to give the student, by means of lectures as well as text-books, as clear an insight as possible into the political life and institutions of Greece and Rome, from their foundation to their decline." So much importance did Professor Adams attach to classical institutions of government that he finally embraced them in one of his advanced courses. To Sophomores Modern History was soon offered as an elective, in place of the Calculus, during the greater part of the second semester. The course consisted of daily lectures on the period from the Revival of Learning to the close of the Thirty Years' War. The Juniors entered upon their scholastic inheritance, the Philosophy of History, or Guizot's History of Civilization in Europe, with the par-

¹Professor White did no work at the University of Michigan after 1862, except to deliver one course of twelve lectures. Mr. Adams was appointed Instructor in 1862, and Assistant Professor in 1864. Professor White's name was retained in the hope that he would yet return; and it was not till he was appointed President of Cornell University that he insisted on the acceptance of his resignation.

allel use of Hallam and Robertson. Professor Adams gave his class familiar lectures on historians and historical books, a course which probably evolved into his useful *Manual of Historical Literature*. At first the Juniors had only a six weeks' course in History, but it was soon extended to a daily exercise throughout the first semester. At first, the Seniors for two hours a week, the second semester, had lectures from Professor Adams on the Growth of Liberty in England, and on the Characteristics of the Constitution of the United States. This work developed in 1871 into an elective course, occupying the entire Senior year. It became the stronghold of the historical department, and ultimately embraced three main subjects: (1) The Government of Great Britain; (2) The Governments of the Larger Nationalities of Continental Europe; (3) The political History of the United States.

TABULAR VIEW OF HOURS IN HISTORY, 1873-'74.

In the president's report to the board of regents for 1873-'74, may be found the department report of Professor C. K. Adams, of that year, showing the following tabular view of the amount of history studied by each of the four classes in their respective general *curricula*, whether the regular classical course, the Latin and scientific, or the scientific. The figures indicate the total number of hours, lectures, or recitations given to each historical group during each semester. Of course many of the groups were united for convenience in giving instruction. Indeed it has never been the policy of the University of Michigan to separate classical and scientific students.

		Classical course.	Latin and scientific.	Scientific.
Freshmen.	1st semester.	History of Greece..20 History of Rome... 4	Roman history..... 4	History of Greece.45
	2d semester.	History of Greece..20 History of Rome...18	Roman history.....18	
Sophomores.	1st semester.	History of Greece..18		History of Rome..45
	2d semester.	Modern history (elective)60	Modern history (elective).....60	Modern history ..45
Juniors.	1st semester.	Mediaeval history..30 Grecian history.... 4	Mediaeval history..30 History of Greece..60	Mediaeval history,30
	2d semester.	Roman history15	Roman history.....15	
Seniors.	1st semester.	Constitutional history of England (elective).....36	Constitutional history of England (elective).....36	Constitutional history of England (elective).....36
	2d semester.	Constitutional history of the United States (elective)28	Constitutional history of the United States (elective)28	Constitutional history of the United States(elective) 28

The following tabular view shows the total number of hours in history given to each general *curriculum*; also the number of hours required and the number of hours elective, in 1873-'74:

	Required.	Elective.	Total.
Classical students.....	129	124	253
Latin and scientific students.....	127	124	251
Scientific students	165	64	229

DEVELOPMENT OF THE HISTORICAL DEPARTMENT.

The study of history became entirely optional in the University of Michigan as early as 1878. The popularity of historical courses is indicated in the report of student attendance for the following year (president's report, 1879, page 36):

Mediæval History (Professor Adams).....	57
General modern history (Professor Adams).....	68
General history of England, 1485-1660 (Assistant Professor Pattengill)	41
General history of England, 1660-1760 (Assistant Professor Pattengill)	49
Political history of the United States, 1607-1783 (Assistant Professor Demmon) .	43
Political history of the United States, 1783-1817 (Assistant Professor Demmon) .	73
English government since 1815 (Professor Adams).....	36
Rise of Prussia, 928-1848 (Professor Adams).....	67
Constitutional history of England (Professor Adams).	19
Constitutional history of the United States (Professor Adams)	18
Total	471

The historical instruction given by Assistant Professors Demmon and Pattengill was provisional until the appointment of a regular assistant professor in history. Mr. Demmon taught also rhetoric, and Mr. Pattengill belonged to the Greek department. Assistant Professor Hudson began his special work as the regular associate with Professor Adams in 1879-'80. The general character of his work was class instruction in fields of English and American constitutional history, preparatory to the more advanced courses of Professor Adams. Mr. Hudson gradually developed a course of lectures and recitations, three hours a week, upon the political and constitutional history of England. The first semester was devoted to the period of constitutional formation; the second, to the period of development. This course preceded the seminary course of English constitutional history by Professor Adams, which will be specially described in its own place. Professor Adams meantime expanded his earlier course on the "Government of Great Britain" into two special courses; one for three hours a week, first half year, on the history of the English Government since the close of the Napoleonic wars; the other, two hours a week, second half year, on Theories and Methods of the English Government.

On the side of American History, Professor Adams retained the introduction to and conclusion of the whole subject. The first semester he

gave a course of two lectures a week on the Political History of the American Colonies, from the settlement of Virginia to the close of the Revolutionary war. This work was required before Professor Hudson's course could be taken. Two hours a week were then offered by Professor Hudson on the Constitutional History of the United States, the course extending throughout the year. Von Holst was used as a text-book. A seminary course in American Constitutional History was then offered by Professor Adams to those students who had completed the preliminary work in United States History and who had also taken two courses of English or general European History. The elements of constitutional law, with Cooley's text-book, were taught for two hours a week by Professor Hudson to students who had taken at least one course in American History.

In the field of European History, in addition to the regular English courses, Professor Adams gave for two hours a week during one semester the old course on the History of Civilization in the Middle Ages, with Guizot as a text-book. Professor Hudson lectured upon the general History of Continental Europe, from the Reformation to the French Revolution, two hours a week for one semester, and Professor Adams, for the same amount of time, upon the Rise and Development of Prussia, from its earliest history down to the present times. As a general introduction to the study of modern politics, Professor Adams treated in a lecture-course, three hours a week for one semester, the History of Political and Social Institutions, from the adoption of the Constitution of Solon to the period of the Reformation. This course formed a good beginning to the general history of Continental Europe, of which the rise of Prussia was the ending. The growing popularity of the historical department is indicated by the article on History, in the University journal called *The Chronicle* for April 3, 1880. "The courses in history are becoming the most popular electives in the university. This marks a growing change in the idea of what an education should consist."

THE SEMINARY METHOD.

In the president's report to the board of regents for the year 1871-'72 is the first printed account of the seminary method as introduced into the university by Professor C. K. Adams. Under the head of "Changes introduced during the year," the professor reports to the president as follows:

"Ever since my observation of the methods pursued in Europe, I have desired to introduce into the historical courses of the University of Michigan something akin to the *Historische Gesellschaft* of the German universities. At the beginning of the past year a favorable opportunity seemed to present itself. After consultation with the president of the university, and with the faculty of our department, I met the members of the senior class and explained the purpose of the experiment.

It was found that twenty-seven members of the class desired to take an extended course of historical study, even in addition to the regular work of the senior year. After this expression the faculty decided to place this course in history among the elective studies.¹

"It was determined that the work of the semester should be devoted to the study of the Growth of the British Constitution. Twelve questions, embracing topics of most importance from the period of the Saxons to the reform of 1832, were given to the class, together with numerous references to the best authorities in the university library. The class was divided into sections of from six to ten members each, in order that the work of each member might, as far as possible, be under the direction of the professor. Each section came together once a week for a session of two hours, when one of the members was required to read a carefully prepared essay on the question before them, and each of the other members was called upon to give the results of his own study of the same subject. In this manner the class gained a good knowledge of the leading events in the growth of the English constitution and, what was perhaps of scarcely less importance, acquired a more or less intimate acquaintance with the best works that have been written on the civil and political history of the Anglo-Saxon race.

"In the second semester the same course was pursued in studying the Constitutional history of our own country. The topics assigned embraced not only the Constitution of the United States, but also a comparison of its chief characteristics with those of the leading political constitutions, both ancient and modern. These discussions, of course, took the class into a somewhat general study of the fundamental principles of political philosophy.

"The success of the experiment was greater than could have been anticipated. The enthusiasm of the students in investigating the various subjects assigned was worthy of all commendation. I have no hesitation in saying that of the historical work done in the university under my direction, that of the graduating class, pursued in the method described, has been the most satisfactory. Though the organization of the class has added very largely to the amount of instruction demanded, I cannot but think that the enthusiasm and the success with which the historical studies of the year have been pursued fully demonstrate the practicability and the wisdom of this method of instruction."

In the calendar of the University of Michigan, for 1875-'76, is another printed account of the seminary features of the senior elective course in history. The calendar says, pp. 40-41: "Those electing this senior course are grouped in sections of twelve or fourteen students each, for the purpose of historical investigation. At the first meeting of the

¹ In 1873-'74 nearly all the studies of senior year were made elective (see president's report, 1874). In 1878 President Angell said, "In all the courses, save the engineering courses, it is possible for the student every term to elect some study." The study of history was made entirely optional that year.

class in each semester a series of historical questions are assigned, with numerous references to historical authorities. Each of the questions occupies the attention of each section of the class for one week. Every student is required to read before the class, in the course of the semester, one thesis and one critique, the thesis being on one of the historical questions, and the critique being on a thesis presented by one of the other members of the class. Every student is further required to investigate each week the question for that week, and to come to the class prepared to give the results of his investigation. The questions considered during the first semester are on the Constitutional History of England; those during the second are on the Constitutional History of the United States."¹

TOPICS IN ENGLISH CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY.

A representative set of topics in English Constitutional History, as developed by several years' experience in seminary work, may be found in the calendar of the University of Michigan for 1881-'82, page 76. The

¹ In the Michigan University Chronicle for October 18, 1879, is the following student comment upon the seminary method: "The Historical Seminary is the name by which the work in English Constitutional History is now dignified. It is intended only for advanced students, giving them every opportunity for individual investigation of authorities, and for free discussion of the social and political advances made by the English at various times. The class is divided into sections of suitable size, which meet once a week for two hours. At each meeting one of the members of the class reads an essay on the question for the day. He is followed by a critic, who examines the historical points made, and passes judgment upon them. This part of the exercises lasts about three-quarters of an hour, and the remaining time is devoted to extemporaneous discussion, in which every member of the section is expected to participate. This course, we think, is one of the best offered in the curriculum to those interested in historical study, and that it is appreciated is evinced by the fact that the sections are filled to their utmost capacity. The advantages of this method of work are many. In the first place it furnishes relief to students wearied with the routine of recitations and lectures. They are not compelled to commit so many pages of a text-book, or undergo the drudgery of taking notes, but may plunge to their heart's content into the rich stores of historical literature and think, formulate opinions, compare people with people and age with age—in short, become historical philosophers. This, of course, gives breadth to the mind. After the student has formed his conclusions, comparison with the views of others strengthens, reverses, or modifies them as their truth or falsity is established. Again, the clashing of mind against mind, and the opportunity of improving ourselves in extemporaneous speaking must not be lost sight of, especially when so few students are found in the literary societies. The work has been made more pleasant and profitable by the revision to which the syllabus has been subjected since last year. We are not only referred to the authorities on each question, but their character is briefly indicated, so that what the student wants may be found without searching through volumes on the subject. The credit which is given in this course is not at all commensurate with the labor required to do it justice. A credit of only two-fifths is given, while it requires more study than is given to some subjects in which a credit of a full course is given. But though that conservative body which rules over our destinies has not smiled upon the proposal to increase the amount of credit two-fifths, we trust that they will give those who have elected this study credit for the pure devotion to historical truth which has led them to take the course with this drawback."

following topics were considered in the class-room, three hours being devoted to each: (1) The political condition of England under the Anglo-Saxons. (2) The political and constitutional effects of the Norman conquest. (3) The immediate and remote effects of Magna Charta. (4) Legislative institutions in England before the establishment of the House of Commons as a separate branch of Parliament. (5) The development of representative institutions before the accession of Henry VII. (6) The relations of Monarch and Parliament during the reign of the Tudors. (7) Relations of Monarch and Parliament from the accession of James I. to the outbreak of the civil war. (8) From the outbreak of the war to the Restoration. (9) The constitutional significance of the revolution of 1688. (10) The struggles of Whigs and Tories in the eighteenth century. (11) The origin and development of cabinet government. (12) The reforms of 1832 and 1867.

TOPICS IN THE POLITICAL AND CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Calendar for 1881-'82 states, page 77, that "the special object of this course is to give training and practice in the use of historical sources. No one is admitted to the class except graduates and such others as may have completed at least four courses in history, two of which must have been in the History of the United States. The subjects investigated by the class are the following: (1) The union of the colonies into one government. (2) The decline and fall of the Confederation. (3) The political doctrines of the early Federalists and anti-Federalists. (4) The early foreign policy of the Government. (5) New England Federalism and its attitude toward the General Government. (6) The acquisition of the Territories and their political organization and significance. (7) The financial history of the country from the beginning of the Revolutionary war to the close of the war of 1812. (8) The financial history of the country since the war of 1812. (9) The development of the slave power and of the anti slavery movement to the adoption of the Missouri Compromise. (10) The development of the slave power and of the anti-slavery movement from the adoption of the Missouri Compromise to the outbreak of the civil war. (11) Nullification and secession from the election of President Jackson to the outbreak of the civil war.

A good idea of the nature of the materials employed in the preparation of one of these subjects may be derived from a pamphlet published by Professor Adams, entitled "Notes on the Constitutional History of England" (Ann Arbor: Sheehan & Co. 1879). Under the heads of such English constitutional topics as those presented above are grouped the various authorities, original and secondary, some of which each student was expected to consult. From the comprehensive nature of both the questions and the references, it was obviously expected that the student should prepare a somewhat general thesis rather than a special research from a novel point of view.

This method of instruction had, however, a decided value as a training process, besides being historically useful to students. It involved the comparison of historical authorities, the use of original sources, at least to some extent, and other important features of the seminary method, such as the critique of theses. This method at Ann Arbor was evidently the result of a development process, beginning at an early date. Professor Adams, in a letter to the writer of this report, says: "No very great change was made in the historical work until, in 1869, I introduced the seminary method, bringing it from Germany, and putting my classes into the work of investigation. So far as I know this was about the first, if not absolutely the first, establishment of what could be called an historical seminary in the United States. For a considerable number of years the work was still rather elementary. Within the last five or six years, since we have been able to bring materials together for the use of students, the work, I think, has been highly creditable. You will allow me to add, perhaps, that since, within the last year, I have observed more largely, I have come to have an increasing respect for the work done at the University of Michigan.¹ The people at the East generally have a very inadequate idea of the general excellence of that institution." (Extract from a letter written at Ithaca, February 9, 1886.)

In an earlier communication to the present writer concerning seminary work in the University of Michigan, Professor C. K. Adams says: "This, of course, had to be evolved out of the old collegiate curriculum. When I took hold of my work here, in full charge of the department of history, in 1868, it occurred to me that something might be done to awaken further interest by introducing the German seminary methods. I had observed the work done in the seminaries in Berlin, Leipzig, and Bonn, and was convinced that better work could be done than up to that time had here been attempted. Accordingly the next year, in 1869, I got together a group of seniors, especially interested in historical studies, to see what I could do with them. The students were, of course, ill prepared for anything that could properly be called original work, and the resources of the library were quite inadequate. But we did the best we could, and the results on the whole were so satisfactory that I was encouraged to develop the system as time and opportunity seemed to suggest. It was not for some years after the time of which I am speaking that the course of study was made elective after the first year. As soon as the elective system came to be general I was able to

¹ The adoption of the "seminary method" by other departments of instruction in the University of Michigan is indicated by the following extract from *The Chronicle*, October 30, 1880: "This method of instruction is especially suited to advanced students and higher literary work, and these courses are always highly popular and crowded to their utmost extent. Seminary work is now done in History, English literature, and partially in Greek. Last year President Angell introduced it into his advanced political economy class with great success. There are no very important changes to be noted in these courses for this year. Professor D'Ooge proposes to read one, and possibly two, Greek dramas in this way if his class desires."

provide such preliminary work as I had strength to carry on. In course of time an assistant professor was furnished, and we have, in consequence, been able to add several courses not before given.

“Up to within the last year the resources of our library have not been such as to encourage us in going into an investigation of difficult and obscure questions. Nor, indeed, has that class of questions been the one I have supposed to be most useful to our students. Nearly all of them are undergraduates and a majority of them are to be lawyers. I have thought, therefore, that their minds required a different class of questions from such as would be most profitable, perhaps to a group of specialists intending to make the teaching of history their profession. In the first semester I gave the students a set of questions on English history; in the second, on American. The questions were, in the main, those in the last pages of my ‘Manual.’ The class taking the work varied in size from twenty to fifty. Of late I have made the conditions of admittance more stringent, and the number does not often go above twenty-five. I have three different ways of conducting the exercise. In all cases the subjects for special investigation have been assigned at the beginning of the year. In about six weeks we have the first paper, usually from half an hour to an hour in length. Then I have usually had a critique on this paper, prepared by one of the class into whose hands it had been put a week before it was to be read. I should have said that the class is always divided into groups of not more, in any case, than fifteen members and usually not more than ten. After the critique, each member is called upon to present the results of the studies on the question before us for that day. In this way the two hours of the session are taken up. I, of course, make such observations, comments, and criticisms as appear to be called for. In this way every member of the class prepares a paper and reads a critique every semester, and is expected to present the results of some study in addition on each of the other questions.

“Another way I have tried is to divide the questions into several parts and have each student devote a week to some particular phase of an individual question. This results in better work, but at the conclusion the knowledge of the students is more fragmentary and less satisfactory. Another method has been to have each student report at each meeting the result of his own studies on his own particular question. This I have found to be the most satisfactory, if the questions are properly chosen. In such a course, the meeting would not be devoted to a single question, as is usual in Germany, but to as many as happened to be in course of investigation.

“This latter is the course I pursued last year in my ‘Political Seminary.’ The class consisted of a group of six, four of them candidates for higher degrees. Our studies were very largely of municipal institutions in different times and different countries, but not exclusively so. The results were very satisfactory indeed, so far as can be judged by

the interest awakened in the students. I have been making efforts to get as large a collection as practicable of municipal documents, and I have put the students into these for the study of such of our own cities as have favored me with their reports.

"The most conspicuous success last year was a paper on the 'History of the Appointing Power of the President.' It is well worthy of publication, and I think would be regarded as a genuine contribution to current knowledge. It covers some three hundred pages of MS., and is very carefully sustained by notes and citations of authorities. Another paper of excellence was on 'History of the Land Grants for Higher Education in the Northwest.' The author of this paper, a candidate for Ph. D., is now in Columbus, Ohio, looking at the State records of that State. He has already visited Lansing, Madison, and Chicago, and after 'doing' Ohio is to go to Indianapolis. His final thesis is to be on 'The Land Grants for Education in the Northwest,' more properly in that portion of the Northwest which is made up of the old Northwestern Territory. He has undertaken to trace the management in each State of all the land grants for education. I think he is doing the work thoroughly. So far as he has gone, he tells me he has examined all the general laws and specific acts in the States under investigation. I think he will not only bring together a large amount of new information, but will make very clear some mistakes that have been made. Another member devoted his time to a study of the financial history of Chicago; another to a comparison of the governments of Saint Louis, Chicago, Buffalo, and Boston. I have also been getting together the means for a similar study of cities of the Old World. I hope to push investigations in the history of education in the Northwest. The management of elementary or common schools, the growth of the high school, legislative interference with colleges and universities are all subjects which might be profitably investigated." (Extracts from a communication written in 1883.)

FIRST ORIGINAL WORK IN HISTORY AT MICHIGAN.¹

From a careful reading of all this testimony, from a study of printed statements in the reports and calendars of the University of Michigan, and from inquiries made of graduates from that institution, the writer of this report is convinced that there were two stages in the development process of the historical seminary at Ann Arbor; the first stage, from 1869 to 1881-'82, was a *training* process, consisting of the investigation of general subjects already well known in historical literature; the second stage, from 1881-'82 to 1885, was a *creative* process, the first be-

¹ It should be noted that Professor C. K. Adams very early set for his students a good example of original work in his own published lectures on "Democracy and Monarchy in France." New York, Henry Holt, 1874. This valuable work, the first fruit of his professorship in the University of Michigan, was almost immediately translated into German and was published at Stuttgart, 1875.

ginning of *productive* research in the shape of actual contributions to historical knowledge. Among the first evidences of original work done at Ann Arbor are the papers mentioned by Professor Adams in the last paragraph of the above communication. Two of these papers, prepared in 1882-'83, have since been printed by the American Historical Association in its first volume, 1885-'86, and are among the best fruits of University study in this country. Their titles are (1) History and Management of Federal Land Grants for Education in the Northwest Territory, by George W. Knight, Ph. D. (University of Michigan), now professor of history in the State University at Columbus, Ohio; (2) History of the Appointing Power of the President, by Lucy M. Salmon, A. M. (University of Michigan), Fellow in History at Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania, 1886-'87, and now Professor of History in Vassar College. The paper on The City Government of Chicago, by F. H. Hodder, Ph. M. (University of Michigan), is to be published in the University studies at Baltimore. Other evidences of original work done in the University of Michigan in 1882-'83 may be found in the report of the Dean of the School of Political Science (Professor C. K. Adams) for that year. He mentions a study of the schools of Michigan during the Territorial period; and papers on the Management of the Public Debt during the War of the Rebellion; Taxation during the War of the Rebellion; Powers of the General Government over Commerce; Criminal Legislation in New England during the Colonial Period; Origin and Development of the Budget. These subjects indicate a new departure in historical and political work at the University of Michigan.

Among the chief causes of the development of this new and original spirit were (1) the specialization of undergraduate work; (2) the recognition of the university system as beginning midway in the four-years' course; (3) the organization of the School of Political Science, beginning with junior year; (4) the institution of the Political Science Association, embracing all the active workers in History and Political Science; (5) the reconstruction of the University library and the collection of materials for original work.

SPECIALIZATION OF UNDERGRADUATE WORK.

It was early recognized at Ann Arbor that the college curriculum, through the modifying influence of the elective system, actually represented two kinds of training, collegiate and university, or gymnastic and scientific. While the early part of the entire course was given up to a variety of required studies for the purpose of general culture, the latter part of the curriculum opened the way to specialization by offering elective courses in which the student might work out his natural bent. In point of age the average American student in a first-class college is further advanced at the end of his Sophomore year than the average

German student when he enters the university from the gymnasium. The actual facts in the American college situation were clearly seen at Columbia College and in the University of Michigan, and it was determined to mediate between the gymnastic period and the graduate period of study by making the latter part of the college course a natural transition to the university; in other words, a student, before he had completed his baccalaureate course, was put in special lines leading to a master's or doctor's degree. At Columbia this process of specialization is allowed to begin at the end of junior year; in Ann Arbor, at the end of Sophomore year.

This method seems to the old-fashioned prejudiced college alumnus somewhat like an attempt to cut rates, scholastically speaking, and to cheapen the higher degrees, in point of time, by counting baccalaureate work as university work. But it should be borne in mind that in our best American colleges this estimate is justified by actual facts. Without much regard for old-fashioned prejudices, Harvard College, in these latter years, has deliberately converted her entire college curriculum into elective courses, arranged in proper sequence for certain departments. This fact portends university work, or specialization, from the beginning to the end of the baccalaureate course. Obviously the present bachelor's degree is not a sufficient recognition of the kind of undergraduate work now done in the more advanced courses at Cambridge. Whether the old-fashioned A. B. will give way to the master's and doctor's degrees, or be conferred at an earlier period in the university course, or given as a graduation certificate by first-class gymnasia, like Phillips Exeter Academy, is an interesting problem. Whatever may become of the old-fashioned baccalaureate degree, it is perfectly plain that the older and better American colleges are evolving into universities. Harvard and Yale, Columbia and Michigan, are working out their destiny in individual ways; but they are all aiming at the same end.

GROWTH OF THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM AT ANN ARBOR.

There appear to have been various interesting experiments made at the University of Michigan to determine the proper relation of the bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degree in point of time. Michigan began, like most American colleges, with a four years' course, concluding with the degree of A. B. With the triumph of the elective system in 1878 it became possible for students to take extra courses and thus complete, in less than four years, the maximum of twenty-four courses, which represented the old-fashioned college course, with an average of three courses of five hours a week for each semester. The so-called "credit system" sprang up, whereby a candidate who presented thirty full courses at the end of four years was given not only the bachelor's but also the master's degree. Six extra courses signified a year's extra work, and it was not unjust that some special recognition should

be given it. But the system had its evils,¹ and it was given up in June, 1884, after adequate notice in previous calendars.

The "university system," which had been slowly maturing since 1881, then came into full operation. This new system, abandoning the old required maximum number of courses (24) for graduation, permitted specialization after sophomore year in departments, *e. g.*, in the new school of political science, soon to be described, and offered the baccalaureate degree in a year and a half of further study along three distinct lines, one "major study" and two "minor studies." Thus by the middle of senior year an undergraduate became entitled, by special examination, to the baccalaureate degree. The new "university system" naturally invited continuance of university study for the higher degrees. By one year's further residence with examination upon an approved course of study, and upon presentation of a satisfactory thesis, the bachelor of arts could become a master. By two years' graduate study, after taking the bachelor's degree, a candidate, upon successful examination in one major and two minor subjects and defense of an original thesis before a committee of the faculty, might be admitted to the degree of doctor of philosophy. Thus in three years and a half from the time of entering upon the "university system" of study a student could reach the highest degree. But of these three and a half years one year and a half would have been spent on the undergraduate side and two years on the graduate side of the university.

The Michigan system gains over Columbia a half year in the race for the doctor's degree by placing the time of baccalaureate graduation in the middle of the senior year; but, on the other hand, Michigan begins specialization in her School of Political Science with junior year, whereas Columbia begins hers with senior year. The Columbia School of Political Science has a three years' course; Michigan has three years and a half. In both instances an old-fashioned and prejudiced college alumnus would say the gain had been made at the expense of a liberal education of the undergraduate student thus untimely cut off from a good old-fashioned four years' college course and snatched away into university clouds before his eyes were fairly opened to earthly knowledge. But it is useless to quarrel with accomplished facts. The pres-

¹ The "credit system" was a "forcing system," which led to overwork. The editors of the Michigan University Chronicle remarked upon the system, as early as November 15, 1879: "The faculty has been soliciting several ambitious students to lessen their number of hours. In spite of the acknowledged superiority of each new class over all others we are inclined to think that very few can complete their college course in less than the four years formerly allotted to the work and be really as much benefited by it."

Again, May 1, 1880, the editors of the Chronicle, in a retrospect, speak of the effects of the credit system: "At once the bonds broke which held the classes together. Everybody was frantic, he did not wish to plod along with his own classmates, but increased his work and bid them adieu. The lower classmen especially put themselves forward, hoping to complete their course in a shorter time than it usually took. But we have all seen that we overdid the thing."

ent college system is no longer old-fashioned; neither is it vanishing into thin air. A bird's-eye view of universal knowledge was the province of the old-fashioned college. The present university system sticks more closely to this earth than some critics think, and it is leading students somewhere in particular and not everywhere in general. There may be grave defects in these modern tendencies toward specialization and university work, but, at the same time, there are marvelous advantages. "*By their fruits ye shall know them.*"

FOUNDATION OF THE SCHOOL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE.

In the University of Michigan the development process from the old order to the new was largely aided by the School of Political Science and by the personal influence of Professor Charles Kendall Adams, the first dean of the new school. He appeared as the champion of the Michigan method of realizing the university idea, in a series of letters published in *The Nation*. A close study of the calendars of the university from 1881 to 1885, and of other official documents, will show that the historical department was foremost in the new movement; and yet the original impulses lay far back in the history of the university, as early as the régime of President Tappan and the opening of senior electives in the year 1856, when Watson took astronomy.

The study of political science was nothing new in Ann Arbor. The subject appears to have been taught by Professor Edward Thomson to the first class that ever graduated from the university. "Political Grammar," Story on the Constitution, and Wayland's Political Economy are mentioned in the oldest catalogue (1843-'44). The latter subject continued for thirty years in the department of intellectual and moral science. President Tappan (1852-'63) taught political economy, protesting that it should be joined with history rather than with philosophy. President Haven (1863-'69) taught it in the same old-time way, in connection with mental and moral science and the evidences of Christianity. This was still the situation when President Angell came into office in 1871 (after a presidential interregnum of two years, during which time Professor Frieze was in charge of the university).

In his first annual report President Angell recommended "at an early day a professor to give instruction in political economy, political philosophy, and international law." He said also that "provision should be made by which every student should be able to take a generous course in the political sciences" (report for 1872, p. 16). So important did the president think these studies that he soon determined to take charge of them himself. His report for 1874 shows that he had conducted a senior elective in political economy for two hours a week, during the first semester, with 48 students; and during the second semester a similar elective in international law, with 46 students. Both classes were taught by dictations and oral expositions, with questions at each meeting upon the topics presented at the previous lecture. In interna-

tional law the aim was, "after tracing the growth of the laws which govern modern nations in their relations to each other, to expound and criticise the most important of those laws, and to illustrate them as far as practicable from the rich history of our own diplomatic intercourse with the world." The history of diplomacy and the law of nations have remained to this day the president's own specialty in the university course. His natural interest in the political sciences; his engagement of Dr. Henry Carter Adams to teach political economy when he himself went abroad for two years upon a diplomatic mission to China, 1881-'82; Michigan zeal for political science, kindled by this very appointment; and the conspicuous example of Columbia College in opening a school of political science in 1880—all these tributary influences entered the historical drift toward a school of politics in 1881. In June of that year the board of regents voted to establish a school of political science within the faculty of literature, science, and the arts.

In the requirements for admission it was provided that matriculated students in the department of literature, science, and the arts, might be admitted as candidates for a degree when they had completed two years of work in the ordinary college curriculum, work which had embraced at least twelve full courses, each averaging five hours a week for one semester, and including all the prescribed studies offered during that period towards the baccalaureate degree. Students with an honorable dismissal from any other college or university, and with a record equivalent to the above, were admitted to the school of political science without examination. Graduates might be received to advanced standing, receiving credit for any portion of the work of the school already completed.

OPENING OF THE SCHOOL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE.

On the 3d of October, 1881, the new school of political science was formally opened by an address on the Relations of Political Science to National Prosperity, by the dean of the school, Professor Charles Kendall Adams. The address was published by the university, and is a vigorous plea for the encouragement of political science in the interest of good government and the general welfare of the people. The professor chose for his text a passage from Milton's tractate on Education, wherein the great publicist and poet calls "a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both public and private, of peace and war." While urging, as educational groundwork, the ancient and modern languages, mathematics, and natural science, Milton adds, "The next removal must be to the study of politics; to know the beginning, end, and reasons of political societies; that they may not, in a dangerous fit of the commonwealth, be such poor, shaken, uncertain reeds, of such tottering conscience as many of our great counsellors have lately shown themselves,

but steadfast pillars of the state." Professor Adams' address was a development of this pregnant thought. He showed the necessary dependence of popular government and institutions upon educated public opinion. He showed that the Puritan foundations of New England and the national endowment of the Northwestern Territory both established schools and supplied the means of education.

Reviewing the examples set by European states, he noted that the excellence of French and Italian administration, in recent years, was due to schools of political science. English politics have been shaped by the economists, by the student of Adam Smith, Ricardo, McCulloch, Cairnes, Thorold Rogers, and John Stuart Mill. The upbuilding of Prussia through the economic reforms of Baron vom Stein was primarily due to the influence of the writings of Adam Smith and to the economic teachings of Professor Kraus in the University of Königsberg. New Germany is the result of such beginnings. The present efficiency of German administration is acknowledged to be the product of university-training and of special schools of political science. But are not American methods better than European? Professor Adams then put a few searching questions: "*Is it certain that our municipal governments are better than theirs? Are our systems of taxation more equitably adjusted than theirs? Do our public and private corporations have greater respect for the rights of the people than theirs? Can we maintain that our legislatures are more free from corruption and bribery than theirs? Was our financial management at the close of our war wiser than that of France at the close of hers?*"

Professor Adams then demonstrated the necessity of political education in our Republic by reference to the three main branches of government, the judiciary, the legislature, and the executive. Admitting the excellence of our federal tribunal and of the supreme courts of some of our States, our lower courts are, in many instances, a standing disgrace by reason of the ignorance and incompetence of judges, the frequent errors of judgment and delays of justice; "the cost of our judicial system is enhanced by the very means which have been taken to reduce it." In legislation our country has need of all the wisdom that we can command. "Questions in education, questions in finance, questions in sanitary science, questions as to the control of our penal and reformatory institutions, questions as to methods of administration, as to the government of cities, as to the proper restraints to be put upon our corporations, in short, questions of every conceivable nature and of every conceivable difficulty demand consideration, and demand to be settled in the light of all the knowledge that can be gained from the experience of the world, for we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that some of the very evils are beginning to appear that played such havoc with the republics of the Old World." Regarding the executive service of State and Nation, the necessity of reform is acknowledged by both political parties. The question now is whether we shall grope our way blindly to good methods

of civil service, or whether we shall study the experience of England and Germany, countries that long ago reformed their administration.

Besides the great branches of Government, there are two other important fields of influential activity—the press and the platform. In molding public opinion newspapers are more powerful than all other agencies combined. How necessary it is that our journals should have, not merely reporters, but educated journalists, competent to grapple with economic questions and to interpret the politics of the world. In this country there is more political speaking than in any other, on account of our frequent elections. What do our people want? “Not political cant, but political candor; not eloquent frivolity, but earnest discussion. If the history of the last twenty-five years in our country teaches anything, it is that there is much greater need of good leading than there is of good following.”

Professor Adams then said it was for the purpose of aiding in these directions that a School of Political Science had been established in the University of Michigan. He proceeded to mark out the proposed course of instruction and to define the relations of the new school to collegiate work, on the one hand, and to genuine university work on the other. He said that no part of the course would range within “the disciplinary studies of the ordinary college curriculum.” The University “has practically fixed the dividing line for its own students at the close of the second year.” Here would begin the work of the School of Political Science, after the usually required work in the ancient and modern languages, in mathematics, and natural science. “We shall give to our students the largest liberties; but we shall accompany those liberties with the responsibilities of a searching final examination. We shall endeavor to bring no reproach upon the school by giving its final degree to unworthy scholarship. In so far as we strive to imitate any we shall strive to follow in the methods and in the spirit of what we believe to be the best universities in the world.”

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AND PROGRESS OF THE SCHOOL.

The course of instruction provided for the School of Political Science was based, like the Columbia course, upon historical foundations. The courses already described in connection with the work of Professor Adams and Assistant Professor Hudson constituted not only the basis but a considerable portion of the superstructure of the political edifice. To these beginnings were added elementary and advanced courses in political economy, each a course of two hours a week, by Dr. Henry Carter Adams (Ph. D., Baltimore, 1878), who, in the autumn of 1880, began lecturing in the University of Michigan. President Angell contributed his lectures on international law, two hours a week for one semester, to the up-building process. A course of two hours for a half year was given by Assistant Professor Vaughan on Sanitary Science. Judge Cooley introduced a law course on Civil and Political Rights, three hours a week

for parts of both semesters. Social Science was represented, two hours a week for one semester, by Professor Dunster, and forestry, for one hour a week, second half year, by Professor Spalding. This was the course of instruction offered in 1881-'82. It is impossible to show a tabular view of the arrangement or succession of courses, for, within such limits as those stated in the historical department, the work was more like the elective system of a German university than like the prescribed system of the Columbia School of Political Science.

In the report of the Dean of the Michigan school for 1882-'83 may be found evidences of decided progress during the second year. Professor Adams says: "A grouping of the studies shows that there were twelve courses in History, eight courses in Economic Science, seven courses in Social, Sanitary, and Educational Science, and six courses in Constitutional, Administrative, and International Law. Of these the following were given in 1882-'83 for the first time: The course in the History of American Finance, the course on Public Scientific Surveys, the course on the Economic Development of Mineral Resources, the course on the Historical Development of Educational Systems and Methods, the course on the Government of Cities, the course on the History of Modern Diplomacy, and the course on methods of Local Government in Europe and America. The studies offered for the first time during the past year, as well as those previously provided for, were open not only to the registered members of the school, but also to all students of proper advancement in the Academic Department of the University. The classes were in all cases attended by encouraging numbers. Of the students of the school who were examined at the end of the year for degrees, six took the degree of Master and one the degree of Bachelor. Three of those who received the Master's degree had not previously taken the degree of Bachelor. Of these, two were examined at the end of the fourth year and one at the end of the fifth year in the University. A general survey of the work of the year would seem to encourage the belief that the school is doing a useful service. Of the twenty students who enrolled themselves in the school at the beginning of last year, nearly all carried forward their studies with an enthusiasm that is deserving of the highest praise."

THE POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

During the second year of the School of Political Science was organized the Political Science Association. This society was formed "with the design of drawing together into more intimate and sympathetic intercourse the teachers and students of the school, and of encouraging by mutual contact the spirit of scholarly and original research." The idea of this friendly, co-operative association of students and instructors was probably imported into Ann Arbor from Baltimore by Dr. Henry Carter Adams, who had been one of the original founders of the "Historical and Political Science Association" of the Johns Hopkins Uni-

versity, in 1876, one of the first "Associations" that came into existence in that institution. It was a kind of enlarged form of the "Historical Seminary"; in fact, it was a monthly public session of the same, with invited guests and with an historico-political programme of a somewhat more interesting character than seminary meetings. This appears to have been the complexion of the "Political Science Association" of the University of Michigan. In his report of the School for 1882-'83 the Dean said of this society: "Papers were presented by the President of the University, and by several of the professors and students of the school. Reports were given at each meeting of books on Political Science either recently published or recently procured for the University Library." Some of the papers prepared in connection with the Historical or Political Seminary were finally read before the Association. Several of the subjects mentioned under the head of "Original Work at Michigan" were presented to the larger body. It occupies much the same place in the organization of the historico-political department of the University of Michigan as does the "Academy of Political Science" in Columbia College.

BEGINNINGS OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY.

So important is a good working library to a department of historical and political science that the writer has noted with special interest the origin of the present facilities for advanced work in the University of Michigan. It is a striking fact that the first officer appointed by the first board of regents, in 1837, was a librarian, the Rev. Henry Colclazer. One of the first purchases, by vote of the regents, was Rafn's *Antiquitates Americanæ*. The first catalogue (1844) mentions a library of between four and five thousand well-selected standard works in literature and science. The selection was largely made in Europe by Dr. Asa Gray, the first appointed professor of Botany, about the year 1840. The library grew by slow accretions, but with no especial vigor, until Dr. Tappan's election to the presidency in 1852. He stirred the citizens of Ann Arbor to benefactions, and added 1,200 volumes to the old collection. The library and museums developed together. John L. Tappan, son of the president, became the first active librarian. In 1862 Charles Kendall Adams was made instructor in History and assistant librarian—an auspicious connection for the historical department. Soon after (1865) Mr. Andrew Ten Brook, the Historian of State Universities, took charge of the library and administered the same for over ten years, until (1877) the present active and helpful Raymond C. Davis took command of the situation and began to labor, with his colleagues, for a new library building.

THE RAU LIBRARY.

Meantime, in 1870, came the first gift of importance to the University and to the department of History. Acting President Frieze, in his report for 1871, describes the acquisition: "It consists of the entire collection of

the late Professor Rau, of Heidelberg, made during his long service of fifty years as professor of Political Economy in Heidelberg University, and embracing all the most valuable literature contained in the European languages on political science and kindred topics. The number of volumes in this collection is 4,034, and of pamphlets more than 6,000. While this munificent gift is of great importance on account of the intrinsic worth of the collection, it is not less valuable as an example which cannot fail to find imitators. It is undoubtedly as nearly perfect as a library can be made on the specialty which it represents. And it was the well authenticated statement of this fact which influenced the authorities at Yale to send an order for the purchase of it before it was known to have been secured for this University. The most important is the series of volumes issued by the Academy of Vienna and those on the original sources of the history of the House of Hapsburg, a work of great importance in the study of European history." Many of the volumes in the Rau library were unbound, but the donor, the Hon. Philo Parsons,¹ of Detroit, made provision for binding them and also increased the collection by fresh purchases. (See President's report for 1874.) The present librarian, Mr. Davis, in his address at the opening of the new library building in 1883, estimated the Rau Library at 4,000 volumes and 6,000 pamphlets.

MOVEMENT TOWARDS THE NEW LIBRARY.

For many years the growth of the library was very slow. In 1874 President Angell reported to the regents that "We are able to add less than 1,000 volumes a year, including public documents of all kinds." The present librarian, Mr. Davis, states that from 1856 to 1877 the average annual increase was only about 800 volumes; but since that date the increase has averaged 3,000 volumes annually, until, in 1883, the library numbered 40,000 volumes. This increase was largely due to the intelligent demands made by the faculties, by the students, and by the administration. The president in his annual reports repeatedly called attention to the fact that, in proportion to its size, the University library was in more active use than any other in the country.

The files of *The Chronicle*, the student organ of Ann Arbor, indicate that no need was greater, on the part of the University, than that of a

¹ The acquisition of the private libraries of distinguished specialists for the collections of American Universities is worthy of mention: Yale has the library of the distinguished Heidelberg publicist, Robert von Mohl, predecessor of Dr. J. C. Bluntschli, whose library went to the Johns Hopkins University, by the gift of German citizens of Baltimore; the library of Francis Lieber was presented to the University of California by Professor Rau's collection was given to the University of Michigan by the Hon. Philo Parsons, of Detroit; the library of Neander is now owned by the University of Rochester; the library of Bopp, the German philologist, also that of Professor Anthon, of Columbia College, that of Professor Goldwin Smith, and that of Jared Sparks, of Cambridge, are all owned by Cornell University; the library of Leopold von Ranke has lately been purchased for the Syracuse University.

new library and a gymnasium. The editors never ceased to quote *mens sana in corpore sano* and to reproach the regents for neglecting the body and soul of the University. When Professor Moses Coit Tyler, long the popular champion of the gymnasium cause, accepted a call to the Cornell University the editors understood that he was influenced by "the fact that the Sparks library is there—one of the richest libraries in American literature in the country. It is especially discouraging when it is remembered that the Sparks library might just as well have been secured for this University as not. When it was offered for sale, considerable talk was made about buying it, but the business was managed so slowly and so much time was taken to think about it that President White stepped in and bought it for Cornell." In the spring of 1882, upon the return of President Angell from his mission to China, the editors promptly observed: "It was very truly said by President Angell, in his address upon the evening of his arrival, that our weak point is our library. It is impossible that in 30,000 volumes can be comprised half the needs of a great and growing institution like this, and equally impossible that, with the present meager appropriation of \$2,500 a year, these needs can for a long time be supplied. Harvard has 200,000 volumes in her library, Yale 100,000, Michigan 30,000."

THE NEW LIBRARY BUILDING.¹

These oft-repeated complaints on the part of the students, and a well-directed influence on the part of the faculty and administration, finally brought relief in the shape of a fine, new library building, opened December 12, 1883. It cost something over \$85,000, and was designed by Boston architects with regard to the most approved methods of library construction and the special needs of the University of Michigan. It has a fire-proof book-room, or stack, capable of holding considerably over 100,000 volumes. One of the best features of the building is the apse-like projection of the main front of the library, forming a semi-circular reading-room, 80 feet in diameter and 24 feet high, lighted from above by a high frieze of windows. Within this capacious reading-room are six rows of reading-desks, arranged in semi-circles conforming to the shape of the hall and accommodating 210 readers. Over the reading-

¹ The suggestion that the art gallery should find place in "a new hall for our library" came from President Angell, in his first annual report, 1872.

A Museum of History and the Fine Arts was begun in the University of Michigan in 1855. Purchases of plaster casts of ancient statues, engravings, photographs, &c., were made by Professor Frieze in Europe, by authority of the board of regents, for the illustration of lectures on classical art and antiquities. In 1862 the professor of History, Mr. Andrew D. White, added to the collection by other purchases in Europe, being thus commissioned by the regents. Numerous gifts have since been made, both of statuary and paintings. Interesting to historical students is the Horace White collection of 900 portrait medallions, illustrative of mediæval and modern history. In 1876 the catalogue of the Museum of Art and History, prepared by Professor Frieze for the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia, numbered about 2,000 objects of his-

room and the book-room are the galleries of sculpture and paintings, with smaller side-rooms for prints, coins, and such historical collections as every university should foster. There are two wings to the central building, which are two stories high, 40 feet long, and 30 feet wide. These are occupied by rooms for the administration of the library, a lecture-room, and the seminary rooms of the several departments of the University. In one of these wings are the rooms of the Historical Seminary and of the new School of Political Science. In close connection with the main library, this department draws its materials from the very fountain-head.

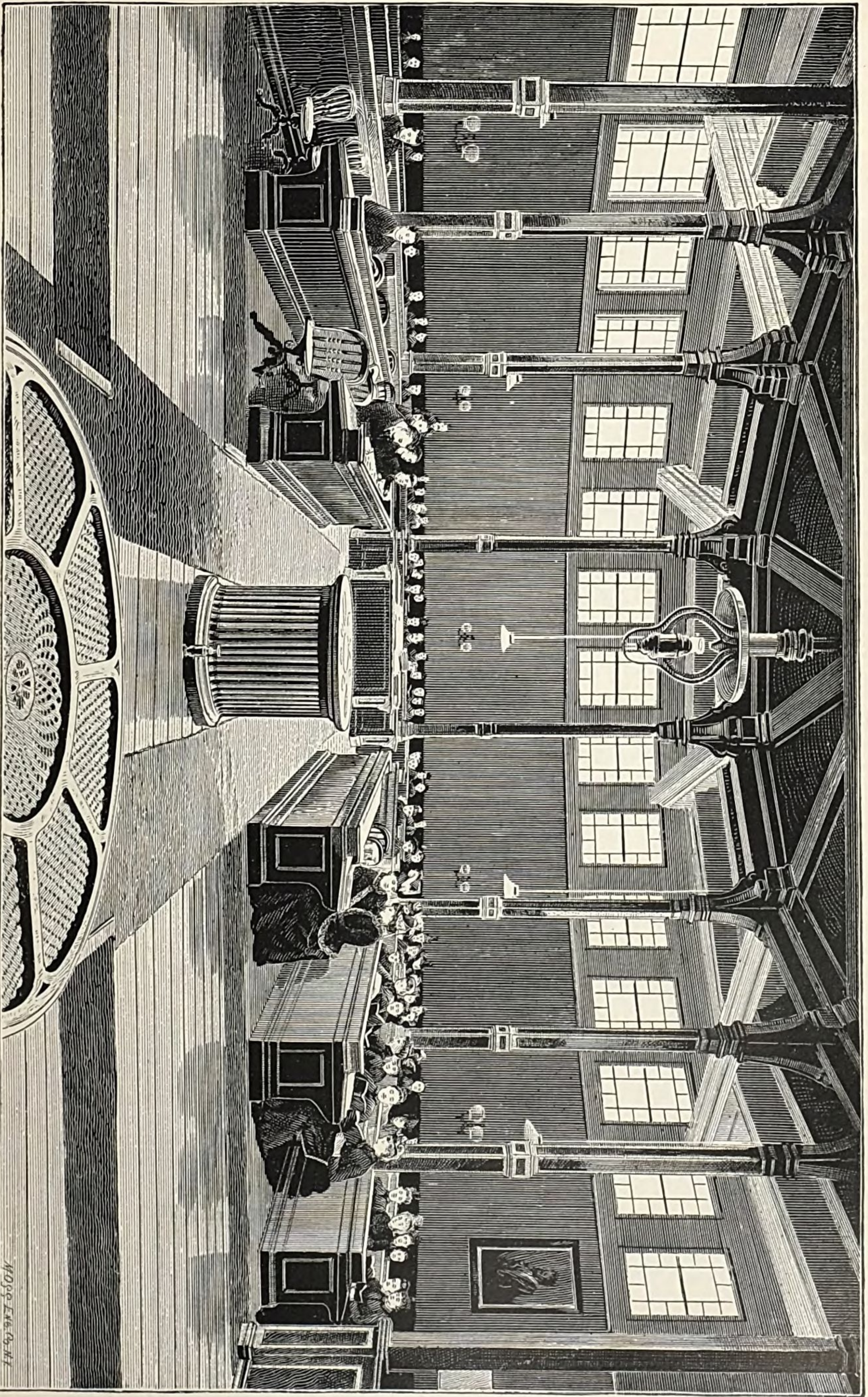
At the opening of this new and convenient library building, President Angell said, "The library of the University is the fountain of its intellectual power. Here we all come, day by day, students and teachers, to kindle our feeble tapers afresh by the inextinguishable lamps with which the great scholars and thinkers of all time have illumined the world. Here in our quiet library halls the revered masters of science and philosophy and song condescend to sit with us as guides, inspirers, and friends. Here our University Senate-roll expands until it adds them all to our corps of teachers. Oxford, and Cambridge, and Berlin, and the Sorbonne thus come to dwell on our humble campus." There is no more suggestive reading for the friend of college libraries and rational methods of administering them than the address of Mr. Justin Winsor,¹ librarian of Harvard College, on the occasion of this new library opening in Ann Arbor. His address, President Angell's, and Mr. Raymond C. Davis's, together with a description and plan of the new library building, are all published together in one pamphlet by the

torical or artistic interest. Since then the collection has greatly increased, notably in paintings. Professor Frieze, in the president's report for 1879 (page 32), says, "This University was one of the first, if not the first, in this country to get together the beginnings of an art collection, consisting of casts, engravings, photographs, and medallions, forming the nucleus of a museum."

The subject of museums of art and history in American colleges is well worth examination. When we learn what has been done, we shall know better what to do. In German universities such museums are highly appreciated and are of great educational value. They are second only to libraries and laboratories.

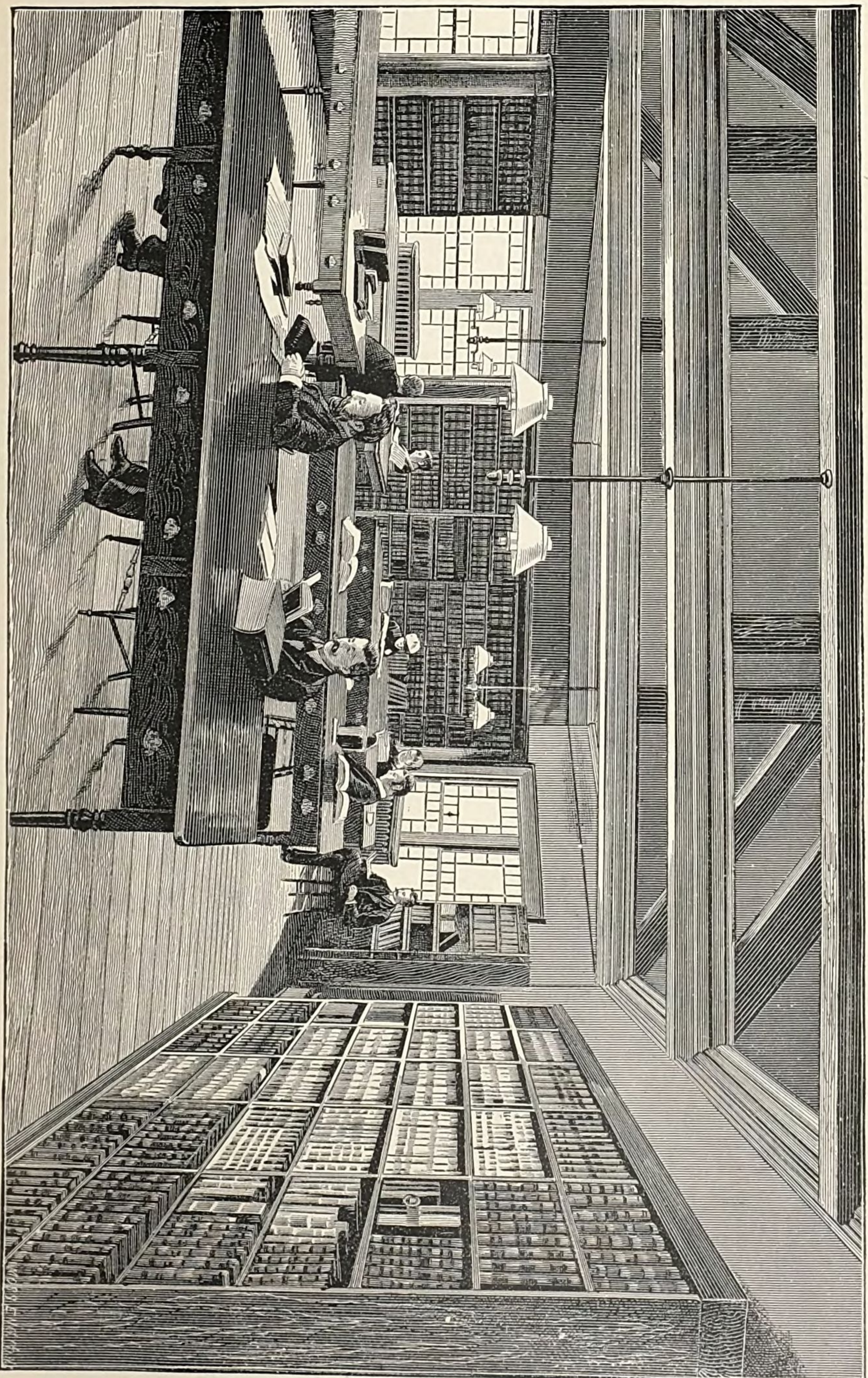
¹ Mr. Winsor ascribes the development of the modern library movement to the influence of Antonio Panizzi, librarian of the British Museum in the second quarter of the present century. The librarian of Harvard University intimates that his own interest in the study of library economy dates from a reading, when in college, of the Blue Books containing the reports of the royal commissions of 1835 and 1848 on the British Museum. They are mentioned here with the hope that, in their old age, these reports may yet produce another librarian.

One bit of practical wisdom from the Michigan-address I cannot refrain from quoting: "Mr. Edward Edwards, the chief English authority on library history and economy, has said that the trash of one generation becomes the highly prized treasure of another. It is to-day the rule of the Bodleian, the British Museum, and the other great libraries of Europe, to reject nothing, having long ago learned the folly of discrimination, and I am glad to say that our chief American libraries follow the same rule." (Page 31.)



GENERAL READING ROOM—UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

ADGSON & CO. N.Y.



HISTORICAL SEMINARY—UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

University (1884). Mr. Winsor said Harvard College "grew upon a foundation of books." The University of Michigan grew upon a foundation of land, but books have quickened it to higher life. The new library and its new treasures have given strength to every department, but especially to the department of Historical and Political Science, which was planted anew in library soil, where it began to flourish as never before. The sum of \$4,300 was given to Professor C. K. Adams by a personal friend, upon condition of secrecy as to the name of the donor, to expend for books in the interest of his new school of original investigation. He purchased at discretion the most needed works of history and political science, acquiring 2,600 volumes of great serial publications and the special literature relating to municipal government in the various countries of Europe. Such are the historic foundations for the study of history in the University of Michigan.

CHAPTER V.

HISTORY AT CORNELL UNIVERSITY.¹

The genesis of a great university is always an interesting subject of historical inquiry, especially when the creative process is so clearly a matter of record as is the foundation by Ezra Cornell and Andrew Dickson White. These two names are inseparably connected with the beginnings of Cornell University. While there were many other influences, educational and political, State and national, which entered into the life of that institution, it was pre-eminently a creation by these two individuals, the first of whom was the material founder, the second the intellectual upbuilder.

THE UNIVERSITY IDEA.

If one were to trace the genesis of the *idea* of a great university in Central New York, he would find it in the mind of that young citizen of Syracuse who, in 1857, returned home from prolonged studies in European universities and offered the greater part of his income for the endowment of a university library in his native town, provided Gerrit Smith (an avowed friend of the higher education) would establish in that place a real university. Failing in this project, Andrew D. White accepted a professorship of history in the University of Michigan. There, during a sojourn of six years, was acquired that practical experience, that American adaptation of a German ideal, which finally shaped Cornell University. Institutionally speaking, Cornell is the offspring of Michigan. To one who has read with care the documentary history of both institutions, nothing is clearer than this genealogy.

¹ In preparing this chapter, which is a sketch of Cornell University in connection with its historical department, the writer has enjoyed the use of a large collection of original documents, reports, registers, &c., kindly lent him by Mr. George William Harris, acting librarian of the institution, and also of a full set of President White's educational addresses. Two manuscript histories of Cornell University, prepared by Professor Russel and Mr. Huffcut, and now in the possession of President Charles Kendall Adams, did not come to the writer's notice until after the present article was completed. These two important sources of information, which the author has examined with care, will probably be utilized in some future history of Cornell University. The only pioneer in the writer's special field of investigation is President White's brief notice of the theory and practice of historical instruction in the course of History and Political Science at Cornell University, contributed to Dr. G. S. Hall's Pedagogical Library, Vol. I, pp. 73-76.

In 1862 Mr. White, without immediately withdrawing from the University of Michigan, after spending a year in Europe, returned home to Syracuse, where he came into the possession of a large property left him by his father. Mr. C. K. Adams was left in charge of the work at Ann Arbor. In 1864 Mr. White entered the State senate of New York from the district of Syracuse and began a promising political career, from which he was soon to be diverted by the project for Cornell University. One cannot read those vigorous speeches, made in war time by the young senator, without realizing that a good politician, competent to force the lessons of history into American politics, was lost when Mr. White became a college president. But his original purpose of fostering history and political science through university education for American youth was, after all, the more feasible idea.

THE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE LAND GRANT.

There arose in the legislature of New York, in 1864, a bitter controversy respecting the final disposition of the agricultural college land grant, made by Congress in 1862. This grant, which Mr. White afterward called "a far-reaching measure of peace" in the midst of civil war, gave to each State in the Union 30,000 acres of public land, to every Senator and Representative in Congress, for the "maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, *without excluding other scientific and classical studies*, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts."

By the New York legislature, in 1863, the national land grant, amounting to nearly 990,000 acres, had been conferred upon the People's College, at Havana, in Schuyler County, upon condition of securing within three years a competent faculty, a library, the necessary apparatus, implements, buildings, etc. Although agents of this college and others had labored in Washington to secure the passage of the agricultural college act, nothing had been really done at Havana to deserve the land grant, and there was no prospect of meeting the required conditions. Other and sectarian colleges began to press their claims upon the legislature, and, at one time, there seemed danger of a division of the fund. Against this policy Andrew D. White, chairman of the committee on education, resolutely set himself, and he carried with him into the struggle for a redemption and concentration of the national grant Ezra Cornell, senator from Ithaca, together with a small but aggressive party of able and far-sighted men. Mr. Cornell's purpose, declared in this session, to give half a million dollars to found a university for the people, is inseparably connected with the idea of saving and utilizing the agricultural college grant. With other friends of agriculture he had been interested in pushing the agricultural college bill through Congress. It is not clear, however, that he had any real university project until he came in contact with Mr. White. Indeed, it is

evident from Mr. Cornell's own words¹ that he once favored the People's College, at Havana, and the State Agricultural College, at Ovid, in about equal measure.

EZRA CORNELL.

The senator from Ithaca was a man of the people. He was of hardy New England stock. His mother's family came from Nantucket, and his father was a native of Bristol County, Massachusetts. Heredity may have influenced Ezra Cornell to favor industrial education, for his father was a potter by trade and a school teacher in the winter season. Born at Westchester Landing, N. Y., 1807, Ezra Cornell, between that date and the year of his death, 1874, lived through all the phases which characterize American economic development. He cleared timber land for planting and became a successful farmer. Before he was twenty years old he was a good carpenter and joiner, thus adding mechanic arts to a knowledge of agriculture. At the age of twenty-one he came to Ithaca and began to work in a machine shop in connection with a cotton mill; two years later he was manager of a large flouring mill. He then became a builder of mills and a practical engineer, constructing dams and tunnels. To scientific agriculture and the industrial arts he soon added an interest in practical inventions, in patent plows, and the electric telegraph. He, himself, by a wonderful continuity of ideas, first applied a combination of the agricultural plow and the revolving drum of the machine shop to laying down in the earth Morse's telegraphic wires, encased in lead pipe, along that first experimental line between Washington and Baltimore. The underground method failing at first, only to succeed at last in our own day, Cornell proposed stringing the wires on poles. He became a telegraph superintendent and actually completed the first successful lines between Washington and Baltimore, New York and Philadelphia, New York and Albany, Troy and Montreal. He cleared many thousand dollars by these contracts. The Western Union Telegraph Company was largely the result of his masterly enterprise, and at the same time the economic consolidation of his life-work, as well as the financial basis of Cornell University. The pioneer boy, farmer, carpenter, miller, and inventor was now a capitalist. What a wonderful process of evolution! From a wood-chopper to a wealthy electrician perfecting the invention of Morse and uniting a continent by his practical genius! In 1863 Ezra Cornell became a philanthropist by founding the Cornell public library, in Ithaca, at a final cost of \$80,000. The next year he was senator from Ithaca in the New York Legislature.

The Cornell public library was the corner stone of Cornell University. One good deed always deserves another. His adopted town appears to have had as strong a hold upon Ezra Cornell's heart-strings as did Baltimore upon George Peabody or Johns Hopkins. An attempt was

¹ Laws and documents relating to the Cornell University, p. 76.

made to influence Mr. Cornell, after he had once conceived the idea of founding a great university, to plant the institution in Syracuse; but "no"; the man remained loyal to Ithaca. President White, in the friendly abandon of an after-dinner speech among his old neighbors in Syracuse, tells the whole story of Mr. Cornell's inception of the university idea: "I found myself in the senate of this State sitting near a man never before known to me, but to whom I soon became attached by the largeness and nobleness of his views. On his informing me that he had half a million of dollars to give to some good object, and asking my advice as to the disposal of it, my answer was that charities would always be cared for by asylums and hospitals, that the public school system and the intermediate school system would be taken care of by the States and municipalities, but that advanced instruction—the crown of all, without which all the rest could have but a dwarfed life—must be cared for in these Eastern States, at least, by individuals. He decided to establish an institution for advanced learning. I made every effort to have it placed in Syracuse. Our friends, who have since established an university here, have chosen the very site which I had selected. I brought my honored and lamented friend, Mr. Cornell, to this city, took him to yonder hill, on which now stands the beautiful edifice of the Syracuse University, showed him the neighboring castellated mansion as the place which he might select as his residence, and offered him the half of such fortune as I possessed for the institution, if it could be placed here. His answer was, 'I think a smaller town is better and safer for young men, and I will do more in addition to what I have done if it remains where it is than you will do for it here.' Reluctantly I was obliged to yield that point."

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

The bill for the incorporation of Cornell University was brought forward by Mr. White and supported in a speech which marks the crisis in the controversy. Against the policy of dividing the national endowment he took the firm ground of historical experience. "The State of Michigan having received from the General Government public lands for a university, at first followed our policy and divided the fund among several colleges. It was so much money thrown to the winds. At last wiser counsels prevailed. A son of New York was made president of the State university; the fund was concentrated upon this. The result was most striking. To-day are in attendance there over nine hundred students and a body of more manly, enthusiastic, earnest young men can be found nowhere."

Concentration of resources for universities and distribution for common schools have always been cardinal principles in Mr. White's educational philosophy. "To him that hath shall be given, but from him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath." This sound

doctrine was applied with telling force to the People's College at Havana, which owned nothing and was doing nothing. Irresistible arguments were urged by Mr. White for withdrawing the agricultural college grant from this institution and conferring it upon Cornell University. Other modes of disposition would require further investment on the part of the State, for the conditions imposed by the land grant allowed nothing for buildings. Mr. Cornell would place half a million at the service of the people without involving any taxation. "Rare, indeed, is it that a million of dollars is given by government for educational purposes; still more rare is it that an individual gives half a million; rarest of all is it that two such offers come together." The bill to charter Cornell University, carrying with it the agricultural-college grant, was passed April 27, 1865.

CORNELL ENDOWMENT FUND.

The agricultural college grant did not authorize the States to locate their college lands except within their own borders. In cases where there was no available public land within State limits, the Secretary of the Interior issued land scrip entitling such States to lands outside their own boundaries, but not authorizing definite location within any other State or Territory. This measure was to avoid an *imperium in imperio*. To grant the State of New York nearly a million of acres of land in the State of Wisconsin would not have been good national policy. But individuals to whom the State of New York sold its land scrip, were permitted to locate the same "upon any of the unappropriated lands of the United States, subject to sale at private entry at one dollar and twenty-five cents, or less, per acre," provided not more than a million acres were thus located in any one of the States.

So much land scrip was thrown upon the market by the Eastern States, that the price per acre soon fell to sixty cents. Before the incorporation of Cornell University New York had sold off 76,000 acres of her land scrip for about eighty-five cents an acre. In 1866 Mr. Cornell purchased scrip for 100,000 acres at fifty cents, binding himself to pay all profits to the trustees of Cornell University. It was obviously the policy of the institution to buy up all the remaining land scrip. Indeed the State offered it to the trustees in 1866 for thirty cents an acre. But there was no capital for such an investment. Mr. Cornell then came forward and generously offered to take all the remaining land scrip, 814,000 acres, at thirty cents, and allow from the profits thirty cents more to the college land-scrip fund, provided all profits in excess of that figure should be accredited to the Cornell Endowment Fund, and thus released from all conditions governing the agricultural college grant.

It was a perfectly legitimate and honorable proposition. The extra thirty cents profit per acre, which Mr. Cornell allowed the State treasury, brought up the Government fund to the full market value of the

scrip, sixty cents per acre. All profit beyond that figure was honestly due to the enterprise which dared risk private capital for a public good. Mr. Cornell's proposition was accepted by the State of New York, and he proceeded, on the advice of land surveyors and experts, to locate his scrip chiefly in the white-pine timber lands of Wisconsin, which, although at that time unproductive, promised generous returns in the future. The utmost sum which the State of New York could have realized from its land grant at the market price of scrip was less than \$600,000. In consequence of Mr. Cornell's enterprise and far-sighted policy, Cornell University will ultimately draw vastly more than the income of the land-scrip fund. Whatever the future profits arising from Mr. Cornell's individual purchase, they will be added to the Cornell Endowment Fund, which now amounts to over \$3,635,000.

The following figures, taken from the University treasurer's report for the year ending August 1, 1887, represent the material equipment and endowment of the University. The figures, however, do not include a number of items that have not yet been entered upon the treasurer's books, the most important of which are 163,000 acres of western lands still unsold, the President White Library, valued at \$100,000, the Christian Association building, erected by Mr. A. S. Barnes at a cost of \$45,000, and the additions made in 1887 by Mr. Sibley to Sibley College, at a cost not yet ascertained:

Cornell Endowment Fund.....	\$3, 635, 000
College Land Scrip Fund.....	475, 000
Sage College Endowment.....	135, 000
Dean Sage Sermon Fund.....	30, 000
Sibley Endowment.....	50, 000
Woodford Medal Fund.....	1, 500
H. K. White Vet. Prize Fund.....	500
Susan E. Linn Sage Fund.....	60, 000
McGraw-Fiske Funds.....	885, 000
Interest accrued to date.....	37, 000
Real estate.....	900, 000
Equipment of Departments.....	410, 000
	6, 619, 000

Of the amounts included in the above table, the most important gifts of individuals are as follows:

Ezra Cornell.....	\$700, 000
Henry W. Sage.....	350, 000
John McGraw.....	140, 000
Jennie McGraw Fiske.....	885, 000
Hiram Sibley.....	150, 000
Andrew D. White.....	100, 000
Dean Sage.....	30, 000
	2, 355, 000

PLAN OF UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTION.

The first steps toward the organization of Cornell University were suggested to the trustees in a report drawn up in 1866 by a committee of which Andrew D. White was chairman. In this report may be found, in outline, the main features which characterize the organization of Cornell University instruction to-day. There, in the first place, was the great idea of industrial education, or special courses in subjects related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, courses planned to meet the industrial wants of the American people, for whom the agricultural college grant was intended. There, too, was the university idea of broad and general training, in distinction from the narrow, special, old-fashioned college course, with only "a single combination of studies." This university idea was an expansion of the university system of Michigan, where, as early as the opening régime of President Tappan, began an evolution of that double combination of studies known in various American colleges as the Classical and the Scientific, but without the caste distinction for the former or the academic inferiority for the latter which at first prevailed outside of Ann Arbor. From the double combination in Michigan soon evolved the fourfold university combination known as the Classical, the Scientific, the Latin-Scientific, and the "Select Courses," now fully differentiated into a university system, beginning with junior year. Mr. White proposed not only a great variety of special departments, but also at least five general combinations, which were early characterized as: (1) The Classical course; (2) the Combined course, where Latin and German formed the joint linguistic basis; (3) the Modern course, where modern languages were substituted for the ancient; (4) the Scientific course; (5) the Optional course, which was entirely elective, or, in President White's words, "similar to that allowed American students in the greater German universities; also like the 'Select course' at the University of Michigan; and which, in both cases, has been found very successful."

The courses above mentioned have been modified in various ways, but they were the origin of the present general courses at Cornell University, described as the course in arts, or the classical course; the course in letters, based on the modern languages; the course in philosophy, based on Latin without Greek; the course in science, without Latin or Greek, but with French and German; the course in science and letters, without Latin or Greek. In the two courses last named the modern languages are regarded as substitutes for the classics.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY IDEAS.

The corporate seal of Cornell University is a portrait of its founder, a stern man of inflexible energy, whose own motto was "Firm and True." Around the portrait is engraved his most memorable saying, which, more than any other words, have been accepted as character-

istic of the main idea of Cornell University: "I would found an institution where any person can find instruction in any study." But those words, pregnant as they are with meaning, are vastly more significant when taken in connection with the context from the address of Mr. Cornell at the inauguration of President White, October 7, 1868: "I desire that this shall prove to be the beginning of an institution which shall furnish better means for the culture of all men of every calling, of every aim; which shall make men more truthful, more honest, more virtuous, more noble, more manly; which shall give them higher purposes and more lofty aims, qualifying them to serve their fellow-men better, preparing them to serve society better, training them to be more useful in their relations to the state and to better comprehend their higher and holier relations to their families and their God. It shall be our aim and our constant effort to make true Christian men without dwarfing or paring them down to fit the narrow guage of any sect.

"Finally, I trust we have laid the foundation of an university—'*an institution where any person can find instruction in any study.*'"

In the inaugural address of President White, who, from the beginning, was foreordained to execute the great bequest of Ezra Cornell, there are certain thoughts which still further characterize Cornell University. Among the fundamental ideas are (1) the close union of liberal and practical education; (2) non-sectarianism, the charter itself providing that "no professor, officer, or student shall ever be accepted or rejected on account of any religious or political views which he may or may not hold," and, again, that "a majority of the trustees shall never be of any one religious sect or of no religious sect" (this great idea of religious freedom in the higher education President White defended by quoting the example of the University of Michigan, "the greatest of educational successes in our country"); (3) a living union between the University and the whole school system of New York, the charter providing that the University shall annually receive, free of charge, one student from each assembly district of the State, the appointment to be made by the school commissioners upon the basis of a competitive examination; (4) concentration of revenues for advanced education, a policy again justified by appeal to the experience of the University of Michigan.

Among the formative ideas suggested and since realized by President White are (1) equality between different courses of study, an idea first established by the University of Michigan; (2) a combination of study and honorable labor, an idea of immense educational significance in these days when excessive bounty is degrading poor students and extravagance is enervating the rich; (3) prominence of scientific studies; (4) opportunity for historical, political, economic, and social studies; (5) adaptation of the University to American needs. At the very outset Goldwin Smith advised President White to take for "general culture those subjects which are most important to the citizen and the man."

For the government of the University these ideas were adopted: (1) The regular and frequent infusion of new life into the board of trustees; (2) student self-government; (3) student accountability; (4) a simple military organization, without harshness of discipline, under a general commandant. The best features of Dr. Arnold's admirable system at Rugby, which re-appeared at Phillips Exeter Academy and at Cornell University, were self-government, responsible government, and sovereign authority, the very elements of the English constitution.

The crowning ideas of the university were declared to be: (1) "The need of labor and sacrifice in developing the individual man, in all his nature, in all his powers, as a being intellectual, moral, and religious." It was urged that the university, while fostering history and literature, science and the arts, should "work toward some great sciences and arts which have been sadly neglected, which nevertheless are among the most powerful in developing the whole man." Among college presidents Mr. White has always stood foremost for the fine arts and for music, the last and greatest of all. Among his own gifts to Cornell University, one of the best and richest is his great and ever-increasing collection for illustrating the history of art, which Herman Grimm, of the University of Berlin, calls the very flower of history, *die Blüthe der Geschichte*.

The art-idea might well seem the crown of all university education, which began with the liberal arts, and tends to the fine arts, more liberal than all the rest. But, there is yet a higher idea, approaching ever nearer to Religion. It is the idea of applying the humanities to Humanity itself, or, as President White expresses it, "bringing the powers of the man, thus developed, to bear upon society." In no way can education better take a religious, a truly Christian form, than in cultivating a spirit of humanity and in improving the condition of our fellow-men. President White was the first of American college presidents to speak out for the masses. "More and more," he said, "the universities should have the wants of the great 'fourth estate' in view. We should, to meet their wants, provide ample instruction in history, in political science, in social science, in modern literatures." In the light of present tendencies in university education and in the darkness of present problems, how true are these words spoken nearly twenty years ago! If there is one demand more pressing than that of wealth for more wealth, it is the cry of poverty for help and of ignorance for light.

HISTORY IN THE PLAN OF ORGANIZATION.

If there is one idea which President White has represented more strongly than any other at Cornell University it is the idea of educating American youth in history and political science. This is and always has been the leading idea of his life, from his student days at Yale under Dr. Woolsey, and in Berlin under Ranke, Ritter, Böckh, Stahl, and Gneist, to his retirement from the presidency of Cornell University in

1885, when he returned to Europe to continue the studies and collections of his youth, with the needs of his young countrymen ever in mind. To Andrew D. White the young men of this country owe a lasting debt of gratitude for his early and constant encouragement of those subjects which Goldwin Smith says are "most important to the citizen and the man." He was not only one of this country's pioneers in teaching history and politics, but he has opened a way to teach these subjects for many a student who had courage to pursue them in days when there was little demand for such knowledge. The names of Charles Kendall Adams, Henry Carter Adams, Herbert Tuttle, Richard T. Ely, and George L. Burr are sufficient vouchers for this statement.

In the very first plan for the organization of Cornell University, after proposing a variety of special departments, such as agriculture, mechanic arts, civil engineering, commerce and trade, mining, medicine, law, education, history, and political science, Mr. White singled out the latter for special recommendation. He said, "although there will be some attention to these subjects in the general course, there is need of a separate department devoted to the study of them, wider and deeper. In various connections with institutions of learning, in various public employments, the committee have been convinced: *First*, That great numbers of the most active young men long for such a department, would work vigorously in it, and would secure good discipline by it, and that these young men are, many of them, not attracted to the existing colleges. *Secondly*, We believe that the State and Nation are constantly injured by their chosen servants, who lack the simplest rudiments of knowledge which such a department could supply. No one can stand in any legislative position and not be struck with the frequent want in men, otherwise strong and keen, of the simplest knowledge of principles essential to public welfare. Of technical knowledge of law, and of practical acquaintance with business, the supply is always plentiful, but it is very common that in deciding great public questions exploded errors in political and social science are revamped, fundamental principles of law disregarded, and the plainest teachings of history ignored.

"In any republic, and especially in this, the most frequent ambition among young men will be to rise to positions in the public service, and the committee think it well at least to *attempt* to provide a department in view of the wants of these, a department where there should be something more than a mere glance over one or two superseded textbooks, where there should be large and hearty study and comparison of the views and methods of Guizot and Mill and Lieber and Woolsey and Bastiat and Carey and Maine and others."

COLLEGE OF HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.

The special faculties of instruction in Cornell University were grouped into "colleges" the very first year. Eminent among them was the College of History and Political Science, with President White as dean,

and with Messrs. Theodore Dwight, Russel, Goldwin Smith, and Wilson as professors. The experience of President White in lecturing upon general European history for five years at the University of Michigan was immediately brought to bear upon the development of an historical department at Ithaca. At the very outset he took the chair of History in addition to his duties as president. He associated with himself in ancient and early modern history William Channing Russel, M. A., who, throughout his career at Cornell, bore the title of "Associate Professor of History." This was the historical origin of the term "associate professor" in American academic usage. President White early conceived the idea of non-resident professors, who should "deliver each year courses of lectures upon subjects in the investigation of which they have acquired high reputations." Professor Theodore Dwight, of the Columbia College law school, was engaged to give a short course upon the constitutional history and law of the United States. Goldwin Smith consented to lecture upon the general and constitutional history of England. Professor Wilson, of the philosophical department, taught general history or the philosophy of history and political economy. The latter course and Professor Dwight's lectures on constitutional law were regarded in 1868 as the beginning of a "School of Political Science" (the first appearance in America of this significant term), which was to form a division of the "College of History and Political Science"—a far better plan of organization than the single "school."

In the early registers of Cornell University the College of History and political science is described as follows: "The historical and political sciences are taught in this college chiefly through lectures, but in early modern history there are regular class exercises, the text-book being Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.' The lectures upon history are so arranged as to form a chronological sequence, ancient history being followed by the early modern period, that by mediæval and later modern history, and that again by the history of England and the constitutional history of the United States—the elementary facts bearing upon the history of the principles of the continental nations of Europe are taught in connection with the modern languages in the college of languages, much of the collateral reading recommended being in French and German. The student, therefore, comes to the lectures prepared to avail himself of the opportunities they offer. Special attention is also paid to Greek and Roman history in connection with the study of the classics in the course in arts. The college is well supplied with illustrative material in the shape of mural charts, photographic views, portraits, casts, and diagrams, the collection including the historical wall maps of Spruner and Bretschneider, the political wall maps of Stülpnagel, the physical wall maps of Sydow, and the various special charts issued by Kiepert and others. In connection with the lectures, students are expected to make frequent use of the university library, which is well supplied with works on ancient, Eng-

lish, and general history, and thus to enlarge, by careful reference and reading, their acquaintance with the facts presented by the lecturer. The examinations in history are chiefly by written papers, and theses on historical subjects are occasionally required. The main efforts of the professors are given to imparting a good knowledge of general history, in developing ideas of the philosophy of history, and in bringing this knowledge to bear upon the most important points of modern history."

PRESIDENT WHITE'S GENERAL COURSE.

Some idea of the nature and scope of President White's historical courses at Cornell University may be derived from two pamphlets privately printed for the benefit of his classes and entitled (1) *Outlines of a Course of Lectures on History*; and (2) *Analysis of Lectures on the Greater States of Continental Europe*. While from this topical skeleton nothing can be gathered of the well-known spirit and manner of the lecturer, nothing of the freshness and quickening power which proceeded from his study of original materials and personal observations upon historic ground, yet even from dry bones one can sometimes take valuable measurements of men.

It is evident that President White believes strongly in the study of general history and of the history of civilization.¹ All his lectures are constructed upon the French plan of general and rapid surveys of great subjects. Indeed, in a study of these outlines or analyses one is frequently reminded of the structural methods of Guizot and De Tocqueville. It is not unlikely that the general or introductory course was designed as a supplement to Guizot's published lectures on the history of European civilization, a work used by Mr. White as a text-book for many years at the University of Michigan. He says in the preface to the first syllabus, "The nucleus of this course is my former series before the law department and senior class of the University of Michigan." One can readily see, from the great variety of general topics and the original character of many of the subdivisions, that here are grouped in orderly fashion the results of many years' reading in a wide range of authorities and of numberless excursions into special fields for original research. While traversing, in the main, the great highways of European history, the lecturer was continually branching off into interesting by-ways and continually noting side lights.

If one who has carefully reviewed President White's two pamphlets, each from cover to cover, may be permitted to redistribute the substance, he would group the entire collection of one hundred and eleven outlined lectures, without regard to present pamphlet-units, into two

¹ President White made a strong plea for "Studies in General History and the History of Civilization" in his address before the American Historical Association, at its organization in Saratoga in 1884, published in the papers of the Association, Vol. I, No. 2. This address was the ripened fruit of a life devoted to historical instruction, along such great lines of interest as those suggested by Guizot.

main divisions: (1) History of European Civilization down to the close of the Thirty Years' War; (2) History of Modern European States, with very special treatment of France. The reviewer would make this readjustment because the French and English topics included in the first pamphlet may be considered more naturally in connection with the contents of the second.

In the first, or general course on European civilization, the lecturer devoted two introductory discourses to the study of history and the best courses of historical study. He remarked, with Thiers (Consulate and Empire, vol. 14), the eagerness of these times in historical studies, and spoke of the prominence of history in European universities. The purpose of historical study he conceived to be twofold: (1) *accumulation* of facts, principles, and laws; (2) *discipline* for keenness, precision, and breadth of mind. In reading history, he advised a close, structural study of historical narrative. He emphasized the importance of geography and chronology, noted "what spurs and what curbs are to be used" in studying the philosophy of history, advised care and skill in the choice of special history, and urged the necessity of getting into the stir of events.

Without attempting to enumerate the special points of view from which general subjects are approached, let us rapidly review the range of topics included in the first great division of President White's lectures. While the topics seem very comprehensive, it should be remembered that each was illustrated by twenty or more special (and sometimes very original) side-lights. Manifestly the purpose of the course was to afford a general introduction to the history of European culture and civilization for young men who had not enjoyed any considerable amount of historical training. The syllabus indicates a bold, free-hand sketch of such great subjects as these: the fall of the Roman empire; the feudal system; the crusades; the rise of cities; Mohammedanism; chivalry; monachism; the development of papal power; development of commerce; Christian clearing-up of Europe; rise of institutions of learning; growth of literature (two lectures); growth of science (two lectures); growth of law; the laboring classes in the middle ages (two lectures); cathedral builders and mediæval sculptors; revival of learning; revival of art; Erasmus; Luther and the reformation in Germany (two lectures); Luther's character, writings, and influence; Ulrich Von Hutten; Charles V and Francis I; the reformation in the Romanic countries (two lectures); the Jesuits (four lectures); the thirty years' war.

The writer here recalls the fact that President White once expressed to him in Baltimore some surprise that Professor Diman, of Brown University, should have given so many as twenty lectures on the thirty years' war to students at the Johns Hopkins University, remarking that he himself usually treated the subject much more summarily. Now, from the standpoint of an instructor in general European history, President

White's idea was perfectly sound and correct. But to a Baltimore student, whose memory reaches back to that special course by Professor Diman, it still seems the most admirable and instructive of all historical courses in the entire record of the Johns Hopkins University. It was indeed a somewhat detailed course, but it was based upon a philosophical study of the most recent German authorities, Gindely, Droysen, Ranke, Gfrörer, Föster, etc., and it was given from a full head, with scarcely the suggestion of notes, in that perfect manner which always distinguished Professor Diman, whether in the pulpit or upon the platform. There he stood, before an audience composed of the best Protestant and best Catholic elements in the city of Baltimore, before university students and Jesuit fathers, calmly narrating and dispassionately judging some of the most vexed questions in that greatest of European controversies, in a way that enlightened all his hearers without kindling their religious passions. It was seen that each of those two great parties, which were at war not merely for thirty years but for centuries, had its rights and wrongs, its virtues and its vices. A spirit of honest concession, of fair-minded judgment, and mutual toleration was wonderfully heightened in that community where the treatment of religious history has rarely been calm and judicial, although religious differences long ago ceased to trouble society. Those twenty lectures, occupying an academic month, were a wonderful triumph of quiet reflection, the very muse of history; but such a profound impression could not have been made in a single hour. There are many subjects in the teaching of history which need to be approached with great deliberation and with almost diplomatic art. It is as true of education as of philosophy that "Truth is the daughter of Time."

The moral which the writer would draw from this digression is that, like Catholics and Protestants, representatives of the general and special methods in the teaching of history, men like President White and Professor Diman may be both right from their respective points of view. The general or special method of instruction is right or wrong according to the purpose which a teacher has in mind. Professor Diman was certainly judicious in presenting in great detail such a topic as the thirty years' war in Catholic Baltimore, for he accomplished a special purpose in that university community; he promoted catholicity of mind and heart, which was always his noblest specialty. President White, from his point of view of a general course in European history, with a limited number of hours, was equally correct in judging that a more rapid survey of the thirty years' war will suffice. It is obviously far better, if a class knows nothing of such great topics as the fall of the Roman empire, the feudal system, the crusades, the rise of cities, etc., to give them some idea of these subjects and of their modern bearing than to spend half of the time allotted to history upon the details of the thirty years' war.

For most college students in America the Old World of European history is almost as truly an undiscovered country as was the New World to early explorers. The wonderful success of this department of study wherever it has been newly introduced, whether in Ann Arbor, Ithaca, Amherst, or Baltimore, is due in no small degree to the freshness and novelty of the subject. For an American student to discover Europe historically seems like a new creation dawn, or like a veritable renaissance. It is therefore always well for the pilot of an historical department to steer boldly, as did President White, across great seas of human experience. It is not absolutely necessary to make new charts for every voyage, or to explore every coast-line in minutest detail; but let the pilot sight the great headlands of history and put in, now and then, at good harbors. A wise voyager will see all he can of European history, or of any great country's life, but he is not unwise who tarries long amid the associations of Rome or Florence, Monte Casino, or Saint Gall, or the smallest of Swiss villages if they suit an historical purpose.

PRESIDENT WHITE'S SPECIAL COURSES.

It is perfectly clear that President White has himself specialized historical instruction in the most attractive of all fields, from a political point of view, namely, the state-life of modern Europe. He prepared thirty-seven special lectures upon France, six upon Italy, three upon Spain, four upon Austria, six upon the Netherlands, five upon Prussia, five upon Russia, two upon Poland, and three upon the Turkish power. In this great field of modern historical politics France was evidently Mr. White's first choice; and, in this special territory, the French Revolution was clearly the supreme attraction. Very early in life he is said to have conceived the idea of writing an American history of this great revolutionary struggle in France.

It appears from the preface to President White's syllabus that very valuable collections of materials were made by him for the study of French history from original sources. A bare enumeration of some of these collections is highly suggestive: 1. An extended series of Mazarinades, originals and reprints, with other materials for the history of the rise of absolute monarchy in France. 2. The Vieil-Castel collection, brought by Mr. White to this country in 1863, and "comprising more than five thousand pamphlets published during the entire period from the calling of the States General in 1789 to the restoration of the Bourbons, and carefully encased and classified with reference to every important man and events of the whole struggle. (3) A collection of the *Assignats* and paper money of all the important issues, including those of John Law, Louis XVI, and the Convention, Tickets of Subsistence, Caricatures, both French and English, and a very complete series of the Bulletins of the Revolutionary Tribunal. (4) A collection of Newspapers of the French Revolution, embracing sets more or less

complete of those issued by Mirabeau, Marat, Robespierre, Prudhomme, and Peltier, and a complete series of the *Moniteur*, with the Introduction, covering every day from 1789. (5) A collection relating to the period since the first Revolution, especially to the First Empire and Restoration, the Revolution of 1848, the Second Empire, and the rule of the Commune."

Mr. White also says in his preface to the syllabus of his lectures: "In my intervals of other work I have made some investigations in the archives of France—have studied on the spot nearly every great event of the Revolution—have made several journeys in various parts of France, including excursions on foot through Picardy, Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, and the borders of La Vendée, and have talked with many who had a very intimate and direct knowledge of those great events. While thus satisfying my love for a study which has fascinated me, I have hoped to do something to counteract the influence of prejudiced English historians and the American dilutions of their works; and to give that view of the struggle, which, so far from disheartening young men, will strengthen their faith and hope."

Thus we are prepared to find in Mr. White's syllabus a very original and highly suggestive view of French history and particularly of the French Revolution. After a rapid review of the general topics connected with this special course, one or two analyses will be singled out for detailed examination. The course comprised lectures on the establishment of French unity, centralization, beginnings of intellectual relations with Europe; the Renaissance; the Reformation and Wars for Religion; Henry IV; Rise of Parliamentary Power in France; the Administration of Richelieu; Administration of Mazarin; St. Vincent de Paul; Louis XIV (two lectures); the Regency and Louis XIV; French Institutions before the Revolution; French Philosophers, their Attack on Institutions; Louis XVI; influence of American ideas upon the French Revolution (two lectures); the French Revolution (six lectures) the National Legislative Assembly (two lectures); the National Convention (three lectures); the Directory (two lectures); the Consulate; the First Empire (four lectures); the Restoration (1824); Louis Philippe; the Republic of 1858 and the Second Empire.

From this list of general topics may be selected, as perhaps most interesting and suggestive to American readers, the special subject of the Influence of American Ideas upon the French Revolution. The following detailed syllabus will serve to show Mr. White's method of presenting a theme, which occupied two successive lectures:

THE INFLUENCE OF AMERICAN IDEAS UPON THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Purpose of these lectures: Outline of history preceding the French Revolution; want of practical direction to French ideas of liberty and reform; general influence of America in giving this practical direction.

First Lecture.

I. THE INFLUENCE OF FRANKLIN.

1. On the nation directly.
2. Through Turgot.
3. Through Condorcet.
4. Through Chamfort.
5. Through Morellet.
6. Through a number of others of whom Mirabeau and Chénier are representatives.

II. INFLUENCE OF JEFFERSON.

1. Reciprocal influence between Jefferson and the leaders of French thought.
2. Jefferson's influence through Lafayette—through Rabaud St. Etienne—through the Girondists. (Federal ideas of the Girondists.)
3. Relations with Robespierre falsely imputed to Jefferson. The dividing line between American influence and want of influence in the French Revolution.

III. THE INFLUENCE OF FRENCH OFFICERS RETURNED FROM THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

1. Lafayette—his influence in bringing on the French Revolution—in shaping it. (His draft of the Declaration of Rights.)
2. Rochambeau—peculiarities of his growth in Americanism.
3. Montmorency and others. Detection by Arthur Young of American ideas in the early Revolutionary ferment.

IV. INFLUENCE OF FRENCHMEN RETURNED FROM AMERICAN TRAVEL.

1. Chastellux. (Difference in spirit between that and the recent race of travellers in America.) Causes of Chastellux's great influence.
2. Brissot (de Warville).—(Clavière's preface.) Brissot the first open Republican in France.
3. Crèvecoeur and others.

Second Lecture.

V. SUMMARY OF THE AMERICAN INFLUENCES.

1. Familiarity with the idea of Revolution.
2. Strength given to French ideas of Liberty—new meanings given to the word *Liberty*. Chénier's Ode—Fauchet's Sermon—Anacharsis de Cloutz's tribute.
3. Practical shape given to ideas of Equality. Vagueness of these ideas previously. Remarks by Maine on this. (History of Ancient Law.) Proofs from Constitutions of 1791, '93, and '95.
4. Practical combination of Liberty and Equality into institutions, republican and democratic. Brissot's writings, Camille Desmoulin's pamphlet. Indirect testimony of Portier (in History of English Influences on French Revolution).
5. An ideal of Republican manhood. M. I. Chénier's apostrophe to Washington and Franklin. Sauvigny's Tragedy of "*Vashington ou la Liberté du Nouveau Monde*." Extracts to show its absurdities. Summary to show its real significance.
6. American influence on French Revolution a cause of just pride. That influence co-ordinate with the *greatness* of that Revolution. It ceases when the Revolution degenerates.

VI. BEARINGS OF THIS HISTORY ON AMERICAN AIMS TO-DAY.

1. How this American influence on European liberty was lost.
2. How alone it may be regained.

The last two points contain the moral of this special study, which was presented by Mr. President White to the American Historical Association at its Saratoga meeting, September 8, 1885, in the shape of a revised and enlarged syllabus, with special comments upon particular topics. Under the last two heads, as reported in the proceedings for 1885, page 12, Mr. White maintained that "American influence abroad was gained by fidelity to republican doctrines and honesty and integrity in the administration of public affairs; that it had now been largely lost by American misgovernment, especially in our great cities, so that American republican government is now pointed at in Europe rather with word of warning than with admiration. He insisted that if the proper influence of American institutions abroad is to be regained it can only be by reforming our system in various parts, and, above all, in maintaining and extending a better civil service through the country at large and a better system of administration in our great cities."

Thus we see that Mr. White brought the special lessons of history to bear upon the concrete questions of American politics. It may also be proper to say, in this connection, that one of the most valuable studies in the history of American foreign relations, that by Mr. Rosenthal on "America and France" (New York, Henry Holt, 1882), was originally suggested by Mr. White and was the direct outgrowth of his own special line of investigation and collection.

EXAMINATION PAPER IN FRENCH HISTORY.

As an illustration of the kind of knowledge communicated by President White to his students in class lectures and required from them at the final examination, the following examination papers, taken from the annual register, 1871-'72, will have its interest for teachers:

1. What is Mignet's remark regarding the transition from the classic literature of the time of Louis XIV to the philosophic literature of the time of Louis XV?
2. Give a general statement regarding Voltaire's life and influence.
3. Give some idea of the method of attacking old institutions in France taken by Montesquieu in the Persian Letters.
4. Give Rousseau's idea of representation in a republic as stated in the treatise on the Social Contract.
5. Name some of the principal encyclopædists. Why were they so called? What relation do they bear in the history of French thought to Voltaire and Rousseau?
6. What was Jansenism?
7. Who was Maurepas? What were his ideas regarding the formation of the ministry?
8. State the main agencies through which the American Revolution influenced the French.
9. Up to what period of the French Revolution was this influence exercised and why did it cease?
10. What was the great preliminary question regarding the States General to be decided before the meeting?
11. What as soon as it had met?
12. Give Burke's objection to the way the States General was composed and give your own opinion.

EXAMINATION PAPER IN MODERN HISTORY.

(General.)

The questions in the following paper are evidently taken from the earlier or introductory course on general European history :

1. Give some account of Brunelleschi and his connection with the history of Florentine art.
2. Sketch the cause of the decline of Art after Michael Angelo and Raphael.
3. Give a brief account of the Colloquies of Erasmus. Name some of them. State the resemblances between Erasmus and Voltaire.
4. Give the main features of the struggle between the Obscurantists and Humanists,¹ with an account of the part taken by Pfefferkorn.
5. Give the dates of Charles V's accession to the thrones of Spain and Germany. What was his title as king of Spain ?
6. Give a short account of the attempt made by Charles V on one side and Francis I on the other to secure the alliance of Henry VIII.
7. What was the League of Schmalkalden ? What was the peace of Passau, and when ?
8. State the effect of the war between Charles V and Joseph I on Protestantism in Germany.
9. Give the names of Loyola's principal associates in founding the Order of the Jesuits.
10. State the part taken by Lainez in the Council of Trent.
11. Give the date of the beginning of the Council of Trent. Where is Trent ?
12. Describe the connection of Wallenstein with the Thirty Years' War.
13. What is Cardinal Richelieu's relation to the history of religious toleration ?²
14. What struggle was going on in England at the time of the Fronde ?
15. Name the two religious orders founded by St. Vincent de Paul.
16. Name the chief political opponents in Europe of Louis XIV. What were *Les Chambres de la Réunion* ?
17. Give the main points in the connection of John Law with the French Government.

PRIZE EXAMINATION IN HISTORY.

For the encouragement of meritorious students President White was accustomed each year to give prizes in the general courses (science, philosophy, and the arts) and in the various colleges (agriculture, chemistry, history, literature, mathematics, mechanic arts, and natural sci-

¹Among the most original and interesting of Mr. White's literary collections are "pamphlets, tracts, and ephemeral writings issued during the first period of the Obscurantist and Humanist struggles, at the close of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth centuries, the nucleus of which was made by D. Simon, of Berlin." Mr. White also mentions in the preface to his syllabus "A collection of original materials bearing upon the latter part of the same struggle, mainly embracing contemporary histories, biographies, and pamphlets relating to Erasmus and the men and events of his time. The foundation of this collection was made by Mr. George P. Philes, of New York." A complete catalogue of Mr. White's library has been made by Mr. Burr.

²The last five topics belong properly with the special course on French history, as shown in the reviewer's readjustment of the syllabus, but it is evident that Mr. White worked out his earlier lectures on French history as part of his general course and then added special courses on the greater states of continental Europe, including supplementary lectures on France.

ence). For each general course and for each special branch of study within a given college there were usually two prizes, the first of \$30 and the second of \$20. In the college of History \$30 were offered for the best series of notes or essay in connection with the president's course in history, and \$20 for the second in merit. Thirty dollars were also given for the best series of notes or essay in connection with Goldwin Smith's course in English history, and \$20 for the second best. For the best set of notes in connection with Professor Russel's course, \$20 were offered, and for the next in merit \$10. In 1870 the president's prizes in his own course appear to have been awarded upon the basis of the following examination:

1. State the two theories which have given rise to the opposite charges against the influences of the Reformation: *First*, the theory of John Adams and Guizot; *secondly*, the theory of Professor Fisher. How may these two apparently contradictory theories be reconciled?

2. Give the name and geographical positions of the three towns where the Diets of the Empire were held which dealt with important matters relating to the Reformation; for what was each of these Diets noted?

3. Give the citation from St. Filippo Neri regarding the young men preparing for the Jesuit missions to England. State the circumstances which give point to that saying.

4. Name the two most laborious and self-sacrificing of the Jesuit missionaries to England. Name any who distinguished themselves in North America.

5. What do you understand by the "Secularization of European Politics" under Richelieu?

6. What was the Paulette? What had it to do with the Fronde?

7. Give a general sketch of the Parliament of Paris.

8. Give, as concisely as possible, an argument on the comparative fertility of republics and monarchies in great men, with any historical illustrations which may occur to you.

9. Who was ruling in England at the time of the accession of Louis XIV? Who at the time of his death?

10. What was the Calas affair, and what was Voltaire's agency in it?

11. Name the three most important writings of Montesquieu, and give a brief sketch of each.

12. What is the approximate date given by Buckle as separating the philosophic attack on the French Church from the attack on the State?

13. What was the central idea of Calonne's financial policy?

14. How may the French revolutionary ferocity be accounted for on general principles? Name any agencies in training the French to it.

15. What was the "Suspensive Veto" under the Constitution of 1791?

16. Give the main features of the French Constitution of 1795, and trace in it the reaction against the earlier revolutionary Constitution.

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR RUSSEL.¹

Prof. William Channing Russel, a graduate of Columbia College, and at one time professor in Horace Mann's College, Ohio, a man of scholarly tastes, was associated with President White in the depart-

¹ Professor Russel left Cornell University in 1881 and occupied temporarily the chair of the late Professor Diman, now held by Professor Andrews. Mr. Russel is said by Mr. Burr to have early introduced the seminary method at Cornell University.

ment of history from the very beginning of the Cornell University. He occupied a peculiarly strong and influential position in the early years of that institution and even served it as vice-president during the absence of Mr. White as American minister to Berlin 1879-'81. At the inauguration of President White in 1868 Mr. Russel delivered an address representing the faculty and expressed strong sympathy with both classical culture and the modern movement towards historical and scientific studies. He devoted himself as an instructor particularly to Roman and mediæval history, although he gave also instruction in French. Old graduates of Cornell University have spoken to the writer in warm terms of Professor Russel's devotion to the university and of his excellent work as a teacher, although in a somewhat unpopular field. The teaching of ancient and mediæval history, in this country, requires men of uncommon zeal and enthusiasm, for, as a rule, American students are much more interested in the modern history and especially in that of England and of their own country. But a wholesome corrective and proper balance to this practical tendency should be rigidly enforced in every college and university.

Perhaps the best idea of the nature of Professor Russel's courses can be derived from the following specimens of his examination papers. The instructor gave lectures on Ancient history and required select readings from Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.

EXAMINATION IN ANCIENT HISTORY (1874-'75).

1. Into what races are mankind divided ethnologically?
2. Into what families are the languages of Europe and Asia divided philologically?
3. To what race of mankind do the Chinese belong, and to what family does their language belong?
4. About how far back do Chinese records extend?
5. What attention have the Chinese paid to the history of their nation?
6. When did Confucius live? What was the character of his teaching?
7. What nations successively conquered China, and at about what time? Of what nationality is the present ruling race?
8. To what race do the people of Hindoostan belong, and to what family does their language?
9. What attention did the East Indians pay to history? Describe their intellectual character and habits.
10. What have been the prevailing religions of the East Indians? State their doctrines.
11. By what nations has Hindoostan been successively conquered?
12. Of what race were the Babylonians?
13. How far back can we trace Babylonian history?
14. Of what nationality were the Assyrians?
15. What memorials of Babylonian and Assyrian history remain?
16. Describe Assyrian civilization.
17. By what nation were Babylon and Assyria conquered?
18. What was the extent of the Persian monarchy under Darius Hystaspes?
19. How far back does our knowledge of Egypt extend? To what races did the Egyptians belong?

20. What means have we of knowing Egyptian history and civilization? Describe their civilization.

21. By whom were Persia and Egypt finally conquered, and of whose empire did they become a part?

22. To what races did the Hellenes belong? Which were the two principal sub-races?

23. What was the general character of the Spartan Government? What was the character of the Athenian Government? Explain as to each.

EXAMINATION IN ROMAN HISTORY.

(April 2, 1870.)

I.—1. Who were the original Italians?

2. What other people belonged to the same family?

3. After the Italians came into Italy, into what nations were they divided?

II.—1. At what date does the authentic history of Rome begin?

2. What authority have we for facts said to have occurred before that period?

3. What is the date usually ascribed to the foundation of Rome?

4. Of what three nations were the early inhabitants of Rome?

III.—1. What was a Roman Gens? a Curia? a Century? a Tribe?

2. Under what two great divisions were the free inhabitants of Rome classed?

3. What rights had they respectively?

4. What means of obtaining privileges did the unprivileged class several times use?

IV.—1. What principle in regard to the possession of land is conspicuous in Roman history?

2. How did the small proprietors of land lose it?

3. What was the effect on the prosperity of Rome of the want of small landed proprietors?

4. What was the object of an agrarian law?

5. Who were the Gracchi, and what did they accomplish?

6. What other persons attempted the same thing?

V.—1. What was the prevailing policy of Rome with respect to foreign nations?

2. By what wars did Rome extend her power?

3. At the time of Julius Cæsar, what was the extent of the Roman Empire?

VI.—1. What was the effect of foreign conquest on the prosperity of the Romans?

2. How did it affect their mode of life, their independence, their morality.

VII.—1. In the time of Marius who were Roman citizens?

2. Under Julius Cæsar who were they?

VIII.—1. What were the original causes of the loss of Roman liberty?

2. Who first destroyed Roman liberty?

3. After him what form of Government did Rome need?

4. Between what persons was the struggle for supreme power?

5. How did the struggle result?

IX.—1. What fatal political mistake did Julius Cæsar make?

EXAMINATION IN LATER ROMAN HISTORY.

(June 25, 1870.)

1. What were the powers of Emperor Augustus and his immediate successors? Whence were those powers derived?

2. After the time of the Antonines, what body virtually appointed the Emperor? What was the origin of that body, and how large was it?

3. What changes did Diocletian introduce into the form of government, in the places of the imperial residence, and in the imperial style of living? What effect had these changes on the powers of the Senate and on the burthens of the people?

4. What change did Constantine the Great make in the imperial residence and in the constitution of the empire?

5. By whom and when was the empire divided into two parts? What was the effect of that division on the decline of the Empire?

6. How and when did the Roman Empire of the West become extinct?

7. By what means was Italy ruled by the Emperor of the Eastern Empire? What was the title of his representative.

8. To what principal causes was the decline of the Roman Empire due?

9. How were the Goths divided? Where did they come from? Where were they when they first appeared in Roman history? What Roman Emperor was defeated by them and when? When and under whom did they finally conquer Italy? How long did they keep possession of it?

EXAMINATION IN MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

(*Fall trimester, 1871.*)

1. (a) Who were the inhabitants of Gaul when the Franks invaded it?
 (b) Who were the Franks? Where did they come from into Gaul? What was their form of government? What was their religion?
 (c) What other nations invaded and occupied portions of Gaul, and what portions?
 (d) Describe the conquests of Clovis. Give date.
 (e) What political considerations influenced the conversion of Clovis?
 (f) What was the general character of the succeeding Merovingian kings?
2. (a) What political influences brought about the change from the Merovingian to the Carolingian dynasty?
 (b) Who was the first Carolingian king? Give the date of his reign.
 (c) What sanction to his usurpation did he obtain? How did he procure it?
 (d) Against what influences did the Carolingians have to contend?
 (e) To what territorial limits was the royal domain reduced under the Carolingians?
 (f) What brought about the change from the Carolingian to the Capetian dynasty?
3. (a) Who was Hugh Capet? Give date.
 (b) What was the territorial extent of his authority when he became king?
 (c) Who was the last king of the Capetian dynasty? Give date.
 (d) With what difficulties did the early Capetians have to contend. How did they surmount them?
 (e) What was the greatest territorial extent of the royal authority under Charles VII?
4. (a) What was the effect of the Crusades on the royal authority in France?
 (b) Which French kings took part in the Crusades?
5. (a) What were the *Capitularies* of Charlemagne?
 (b) By what authority were they enacted?
 (c) What means of government did he devise?
 (d) What were *Dukes* and *Counts* in his reign?
 (e) What was his policy in regard to the church?
6. (a) Under the successors of Charlemagne how were the laws made and administered outside of the royal domain?
 (b) What were the *Etablissements* of Louis IX?
 (c) What was their influence in Europe?

7. (a) To how much French territory was Edward I of England lawfully entitled?
(b) Under what kings was the battle of Crecy fought?
(c) For what was that battle remarkable?
8. (a) Between what princes was the battle of Poitiers fought?
(b) What was the result to France of that battle?
(c) What was the most important conquest of Edward III in France?
9. (a) Who was Etienne Marcel?
(b) What object did he attempt?
(c) What caused his failure?
(d) What makes his attempt remarkable in French history?
10. (a) What was the condition of France under Charles VI?
(b) What question was involved in the war with England?
(c) What domestic discord divided France in that reign?
11. What means did Charles VII adopt for the recovery of France and with what result?
12. What political lesson may be learned from the government of France in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries?

PROFESSOR WILLIAM D. WILSON.

The professor of moral and intellectual philosophy was enrolled in the faculty of history and political science as well as in the faculty of philosophy and letters. He was for many years the faithful registrar of the university, and was the first teacher Cornell students ever had in political economy and in civil polity. In addition to his regular work in connection with the philosophical department, he lectured twice a week to the senior class upon the philosophy of history, with the intention of explaining the origin, course, and progress of civilization, and the causes that have contributed to it. A specimen set of the questions drawn by each student by lot, for the final examination, is appended, and will sufficiently illustrate the nature of his course:

QUESTIONS IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF HISTORY.

(*Specimen set No. 2.*)

2. What are the three agents that control the causes and results of history? What are the different theories of their relative influence?
22. Why may we not expect any high civilization in extreme latitudes? What is the effect of elevation above sea-level on civilization?
42. What influence has intellectual culture on religion with reference to (1) fetichism, (2) polytheism, and (3) monotheism?
62. Describe the circumstances of race and physical position that made Athens the place of origin of modern civilization.

HISTORY THROUGH THE LANGUAGES.

An excellent feature of historical instruction was early introduced at Cornell University, as well as at Harvard, by the professors of the modern languages. Just as special attention is paid to classical history by teachers of the classics at Harvard, Yale, Michigan, and all the better colleges, so at Cornell it was recognized, almost from the outset,

that the elementary facts bearing upon the history of the principal continental nations should be taught by the departments of modern languages most interested therein, and that much of the collateral reading should be in French and German. Mr. Russel, who was associate professor of history, was for many years professor of South European languages and lectured regularly on the history and literatures of the peoples whose languages he taught. The best illustration of the possibilities of the method, from an historical point of view, is the examination set, in 1870-'71, by Dr. Willard Fiske, professor of North European languages and librarian of the University. The test was to write brief essays (one of which was to be in German) on the following subjects. It will be observed that with the general topic is a kind of syllabus for the student to follow. Of course, only the barest outline was expected.

GERMAN HISTORY IN GERMAN.

1. *Die Voelkerwanderung*.—Earliest migrations. Leading incidents of the Cimbri-Teutonic movement. Event which marked the beginning of the *Voelkerwanderung* proper. Principal nationalities engaged in it and kingdoms founded by them. Route pursued by the Goths. Their conquests, supremacy, and decline. Their language and its relation to other Germanic tongues. Life and labors of Ulphilas.

2. *The Princes and the Empire*.—Names and general limits of the chief dukedoms. Original object of the ducal office. Constant aspirations of the Dukes. Their contests with the Empire. Policy of the Saxon monarchs in regard to them. Policy of the Salic monarchs. The ecclesiastical principalities. Their position with regard to the Emperors and the Popes. The electors. Character and constitution of the electoral body at different periods of the Empire.

3. *Literature of the Hohenstaufen Period*.—Frederick the Second as the protector of learning. Dialects employed in literature during the days of the Staufen. *Die Volks-poesie* and the sources of its material. Chief works produced. *Die Kunstpoesie* and the two chief sources of its material. Works of Wolfram von Eschenbach and Hartmann von der Aue. Character of the *Minnesang*. Walther von der Vogelweide. Most important example of the *Thiersage*. Its character and influence.

4. *The Teutonic Knights*.—Origin of the order; its regulations. Successive residences of the grand masters. Commencement of their connection with Northeastern Germany. Extent of their possessions beyond the order. Their contests with the Lithuanians. Decline of the order.

5. *The Hansa*.—Origin and progress of the League. Its constitution. Its chief city and the other *Quartierstädte*. Five chief dépôts outside of Germany. Period of the League's greatest prosperity. Its connection with Asiatic commerce. Its wars. Causes of its decline. Its relics in later times.

GOLDWIN SMITH'S COURSE IN ENGLISH HISTORY.

The connection of Goldwin Smith with Cornell University has been one of the strongest intellectual forces in its constitution. President White, on the very day of his own inauguration, read in public an extract from one of Goldwin Smith's letters, in which the English scholar said: "The only advice I should give you, would be, without ignoring the educational experience of Europe, to act quite independently of it, and to remain uninfluenced, either in the way of imitation or of antagonism,

by our educational institutions or ideas. What I would say is, adapt your practical education, which must be the basis of the whole, to the practical needs of American life, and for the general culture take those subjects which are most important and interesting to the citizen and the man. Whatever part may be assigned to my subject in the course of general culture, I will do what I can to meet the wishes of the authorities of the University, without exaggerating the value of the subject or unduly extending its sphere."

In the very first catalogue of Cornell University the name of Goldwin Smith appears as non-resident professor of English history, together with such names as Louis Agassiz, lecturer on natural history; George William Curtis, lecturer on recent literature; Theodore W. Dwight, lecturer on constitutional law; James Russell Lowell, lecturer on English literature. It was a part of President White's original plan that there should be given every year courses of lectures by non-resident professors upon subjects wherein they were specially eminent. Goldwin Smith had long been known in the old world and in the new for his special studies in history and politics. He was the successor of Thomas Arnold and the predecessor of William Stubbs and Edward A. Freeman as regius professor of modern history in the university of Oxford. It was, therefore, a peculiar honor as well as a singular advantage for young Cornell University to have the co-operation of such a man in the up-building of her historical department. He brought scholarly training and distinguished prestige from the oldest English seat of learning to the youngest institution of science in America. Devoting himself to English and Canadian politics in Toronto and to an occasional course of lectures on English history at Cornell University, he combined most harmoniously the noblest elements in English life—present striving and past achievement.

The combination of English and American qualities, historical and political, which Goldwin Smith and Andrew Dickson White represented for many years at Ithaca, was a force absolutely unique in American academic life. The vigorous influence of their joint instruction upon the students of Cornell University is best described by the following extract from a letter written by G. William Harris, acting librarian of Cornell University: "If, as an old Cornell student, I may be permitted to express my personal opinion, I would like to say that the stimulating and inspiring influence of the historical lectures of President White and Goldwin Smith was very great upon the students who attended them. In the early years of the university Goldwin Smith delivered an extended course of lectures on the political and constitutional history of England, from the Roman conquest to the rebellion of 1745, of which I have ever retained a lively remembrance as one of the most instructive and profitable in my college course."

President White, in his final report to the trustees, upon his resignation in 1885, paid a high tribute to Goldwin Smith for the services

which he had rendered to Cornell University: "Professor Goldwin Smith came here at the opening of the University. Without fee or reward he continued, first through all the early period of our privations and hardships, as a resident professor; and since that time he has remained as a non-resident professor, giving lectures on the general and constitutional history of England. In any list of founders of the university his name must surely take an honored place. I might speak of the quiet services he has rendered as a counselor, of a large gift to the university when it was most needed, of benefactions liberally and constantly made, yet always without the slightest tinge of ostentation, to the university and to individuals. But I must speak of the debt we owe him for his instruction. Every thinking professor and student who has had anything to do with history and kindred subjects here, will confess to receiving the best impulses and direction from him. Though always true to his own country, never faltering for an instant in loyalty to it, an Englishman of Englishmen, this loyalty has but increased respect for him, and for his country. I know of no one who, in these days, has done so much to promote the kindly feelings, so rudely shaken during our civil war, between scholarly men in the two countries, as has Goldwin Smith."

GOLDWIN SMITH'S EXAMINATIONS IN ENGLISH HISTORY.

The following two examination papers, prepared by Goldwin Smith, are the only ones of the kind that the writer has found in the registers of Cornell University, and they are well worthy of preservation for their suggestiveness to teachers of English history.

Paper for 1870.

1. Edward I has been called the English Justinian. What claim has he to that title?
2. What took place (*a*) in the organization; (*b*) in the weapons of the English army in the time of Edward III? State the military and political effects of these changes.
3. Give an account of Wyckliffe. To what extent was his movement successful?
4. State the causes, character, and political effects of the War of the Roses.
5. Describe the domestic policy of the first two Tudors. What was the Star Chamber?
6. What were the political, social, and economical effects of the dissolution of the monasteries? What question of jurisprudence arises out of this transaction?
7. Give an account of the political opinions and career of Bacon. On what grounds was he impeached? What plea has been urged in his defense, and how far is it valid?
8. What was the state of France, Germany, and Spain towards the end of the reign of James I? What were the leanings of the English court with regard to foreign affairs?
9. Give an account of the petition of right and the question of ship money.
10. At the commencement of the civil war which districts, classes, and interests adhered to the King, which to the Parliament?
11. Mention the chief battles of the first civil war, with dates, and state the consequences of each.
12. Under what influences was the character of Cromwell formed?

Paper for 1871.

1. Of what races is the British nation composed? In what districts does each race prevail?
2. What were the powers of the Saxon kings? Was the monarchy hereditary or elective?
3. What political struggle took place in the reign of Edward the Confessor?
4. Give the leading features of the policy of William the Conqueror in church and state.
5. For what principle did Anselm contend against Henry I? What was the issue of the contest?
6. Of what tendency of the feudal system is the reign of Stephen an example?
7. What was the question at issue between Henry II and Thomas à Becket? What was the immediate and what the ultimate result of the struggle?
8. State the good and bad features of the character of Richard I, connecting them with the state of morality and civilization in his time.
9. What are the most important articles of the Great Charter?
10. What new religious orders appeared in England in the time of Henry III? What led to their foundation?
11. Give an account of the Statute of Mortmain.
12. What economical crisis marked the reign of Edward III? To what legislation did it lead?
13. What led to the insurrection of Wat Tyler?
14. What were the political consequences of the Wars of the Roses?
15. Why is the reign of Henry VII said to mark the commencement of Modern History?
16. How far was the Reformation carried in the reign of Henry VIII?
17. What was the policy of the Protector Somerset?
18. Account for the religious reaction at the accession of Mary.
19. What led to the development of the English drama in the age of Elizabeth?

JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE AT CORNELL.

In 1872-'73 the study of English history at Cornell University was still further promoted by a course of lectures upon that subject by James Anthony Froude. Unfortunately no evidence is at hand respecting the exact nature of the course, but the visit of this English historian to Ithaca is memorable because of the remarkable tribute which, upon the eve of his departure, he publicly paid to Ezra Cornell, one year before the latter's death. The words deserve to be recorded: "Since I landed in America, a few weeks ago, I have had my eyes opened to a great many things, but I must say I have seen nothing which, perhaps, astonished and even startled me, more than I have seen in Ithaca. I will not say Cornell University alone; there is something I admire even more than the University, and that is the quiet, unpretending man by whom the University was founded." Mr. Froude added other words of honor, but this simple tribute best befits the man who made it possible for history to flourish in a land without castles and a landed gentry. "There are men in England," said Mr. Froude, in conclusion, "who make great fortunes, and who make claim to great munificence, but who manifest their greatness in buying great estates and building castles, for the founding of peerages to be handed down from father to son. Mr. Cornell

has sought for immortality, and the perpetuity¹ of his name among the people of a free nation. There stands his great University, built upon a rock—built of stone, as solid as a rock, to endure while the American Nation endures.”

CHAIR OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

The provision made for historical study at Cornell University did not at first embrace the history of this country, although a chair of American History was suggested by President White as early as 1868. Goldwin Smith represented English history and President White the history of the greater states of continental Europe; but America had no place in the original curriculum at Ithaca. It was a defect by no means uncommon in American colleges, and it was early recognized by President White in his communications to the trustees of Cornell University. In his semi-annual report for 1871-'72, he said: “As regards history it is not known that any institution in the country has so extended a course, but there is needed an addition here, and I hope at an early date to see the history of our own country fairly and fully treated. It is a curious fact, and one not very creditable to our nation, that at present if any person wishes to hear a full and thorough course of lectures on the history of this country he must go to Paris or Berlin for it. That the subject can be made interesting is shown by the crowds who flocked to the lecture rooms of Neumann, the German, or Laboulaye, the Frenchman. That it is important needs no proof.

“We ought soon to have a series of lecturers with judicial fairness, going over the great periods of our history, doing justice to all parties and being unduly enthralled by none. My plan would be to take four or five thoughtful men, and assign to each a period, say, to the first the Colonial period, to the second the period of the Revolution, to the third the period from the Revolution to the war of 1812, to the fourth the period extending from the war of 1812 to the beginning of our civil war. I believe that such a course well prepared would be a powerful instrumentality in sending out from this institution a great body of men above the level of mere partisanship, and beyond the reach of corruption. Recognizing the fact that the safe working of our Government demands two parties, and seeing, what any just treatment of our history must show, that there must always be in every nation not decrepit or oppressed, a division between the more radical and the more conservative, students would become in either party less bigoted, but none the less earnest.

“As to political economy, I would have the same principle adopted. Two lectureships should be established, to which leading advocates of the two great sides in political economy might be called. Lecturers like these would stir great activity among the students, would awake many,

¹A curious survival, or pardonable transformation, of the principle of primogeniture, in the institution of Cornell University, is the charter provision that “the eldest male lineal descendant of Ezra Cornell” shall always be one of the board of trustees.

and spur on more. Both parties being represented neither could complain."

The principle involved in these recommendations, namely, a *representative* treatment of American history and of political economy was carried out in the latter department in that double system of lectures by Dr. Henry Carter Adams and the Hon. Ellis Roberts, representatives respectively of free trade and protection. Although the system was criticised at the time in an article published in *The Nation*, entitled "A Duplex Professorship," it has been practically essayed in recent years by Harvard University and Yale College, which both secured the services of Professor Robert Thompson, of the University of Pennsylvania, to represent economic interests not already advocated. It may, however, be seriously questioned whether partisan interests in political economy have really any more fitting place in university circles than have sectarian interests, against which President White led one of the modern crusades.

The first foundations for a chair of American History in Cornell University were made the very year of President White's recommendation, 1871-'72, in the election of Professor George Washington Greene "to one of the chairs of American History, and the purchase of President Sparks' library in American History" (*Cornell University Register*, 1871-'72, p. 45). Professor Greene, of East Greenwich, R. I., was a non-resident lecturer during one trimester, either fall or winter, from 1871 to 1874-'75. The only evidence available respecting the character of his course is the following examination paper, set in the second term of Senior year, 1873-'74:

PROFESSOR GREENE'S EXAMINATION IN AMERICAN HISTORY.

1. What four nations laid claim to the territories which ultimately became the United States?
2. Upon what principle did each found its claim?
3. What was the original object of the colonization of Virginia?
4. What that of New England?
5. What were the three forms of the relations of the colonies to the mother country?
6. How did alienation begin?
7. Explain the connection between the Stamp Act and the battle of Lexington.
8. Through what channel did the colonists receive their specie?
9. Give the story of the Hutchinson letters.
10. What was the civil government of the Revolution?
11. What was the first great financial error of the Revolution?
12. What was the fundamental error with regard to the army of the Revolution?
13. Who was the great diplomatist of the Revolution?
14. Name some authors and their works.
15. What two foreign officers rendered the most important services during the war of Independence?
16. What was the early life of Jean de Kalb?
17. What two schools of military tactics were represented in the American Army?
18. What was the approximate number of German mercenaries?
19. What was De Kalb's commission from Broglie?

Professor Greene's connection with Cornell University ceased in 1874-'75. From his time until the appointment of Professor Moses Coit Tyler in 1881, American history was represented as well as the circumstances allowed by Professor Dwight's lectures on American Constitutional Law and History; by Professor Wilson's course of forty lectures on American Law and Polity; and by Professor Russel who gave regular class instruction in the history of the United States. During the absence of President White as minister to Germany, Mr. Russel read the president's lectures on Mediæval history to the seniors and gave them two terms in the history of their own country, besides his regular work in Roman history. As acting president of the university in 1880-'81, he reported to the trustees that Mr. John Fiske gave that year seven lectures on American History, while Goldwin Smith gave five on the Constitutional History of England.

PROFESSOR MOSES COIT TYLER.

In 1881, the year in which Professor Russel withdrew from Cornell University to take the vacant chair of Professor Diman in Brown University, Mr. Tyler was appointed "Professor of American History and Literature." Since 1867 he had been professor of rhetoric and English literature in the University of Michigan, where he had already won fame for his special work in the history of American literature, and where he was deservedly popular by reason of his interest in every progressive movement. He was the champion of the students in the gymnasium cause, and he was on the affirmative side of the long mooted question of admitting women¹ to the University, which was decided in 1870, as Judge Cooley said, without causing a ripple on the surface of university matters, and with "no evil results whatever." In 1873 Professor Tyler and President Angell, of the University of Michigan, were both present at the laying of the corner-stone of Sage College for women, who were now to be admitted to Cornell University. Both the professor and the president declared their unqualified belief in the wisdom of this new departure. Mr. Tyler took for his text the words of Frederick Robertson, "Save yourself from all sectarianism," and applied this principle, upon which both the University of Michigan and that of Cornell had been founded, to education. He showed clearly that, as there could be no fencing off sections of knowledge, whether the classics, the modern lan-

¹ Students of this great question, which has been favorably decided by Michigan and Cornell Universities, will find very suggestive ideas upon the subject, *pro* and *con*, (1) in the report made to the regents of the University of Michigan, when the subject of the admission of women to academic training was first proposed in that State; (2) proceedings at the laying of the corner-stone of the Sage College of Cornell University, Ithaca; University Press, 1873, which contains, pp. 71 to 134, the report submitted to the trustees of Cornell University, in behalf of a majority of the committee on Mr. Sage's proposal to endow a college for women, with a most remarkable array of facts *vs.* opinions; (3) the annual reports of the president (Barnard) of Columbia College in recent years, particularly that of 1881.

guages, or the natural sciences, to be the exclusive field for academic culture, so there should be no limitations of persons in education. The great idea of the founder of Cornell University—"where any person can find instruction in any subject"—was logically applied to sex, the "most arbitrary species of educational sectarianism."

SUCCESS OF WOMEN IN THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

One excellent literary result of Professor Tyler's call to Cornell—an essay by one of his lady pupils—happened to fall into the hands of the present writer, who, for historical profit and pedagogical experiment, read the paper to the members of his seminary of history and politics in Baltimore. The members knew nothing and guessed nothing as to the author, least of all that the paper was written by a woman. The subject was "Bacon's Rebellion," in Virginia in 1675, and it was written from the best sources then available, before Mr. Eggleston's discovery of new material in London, by Miss Mary E. B. Roberts, when a student at Cornell University. She is now an assistant of Miss Coman, professor of history in Wellesley College, Massachusetts. These two young teachers, the one a graduate of the University of Michigan and the other of Cornell University, both with special attainments in history, have now united the experience derived at two universities for the promotion of history in a special college for women. Miss Freeman, the president of Wellesley College, and formerly its professor of history, was a graduate of the historical department of the University of Michigan, as was also her predecessor, Mary D. Sheldon, author of "Studies in General History" (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1885). Still another graduate from that department is Miss Lucy M. Salmon, author of a valuable monograph on the "History of the Appointing Power of the President," which George William Curtis said "is by far the most thorough study of the subject, historically, yet made in this country; and its conciseness and mastery of an immense detail, of which I know something by experience, are remarkable." This monograph was published by the American Historical Association (Volume I, Paper No. 5, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1886). For the year 1886-'87, Miss Salmon was appointed fellow in history at Bryn Mawr, that new and well-equipped college for women near Philadelphia, and she has recently been made professor of history in Vassar College. From an historical point of view, it would therefore appear that the Michigan and Cornell experiment has been attended with successful results.

PROFESSOR TYLER'S COURSES AND METHODS.

In a private letter to the writer of these sketches, Professor Tyler thus describes his course and methods of teaching: "Perhaps it may be a peculiarity in my work as a teacher of history here that I am permitted to give my whole attention to American history. At any rate, this fact enables me to organize the work of American history so as to

cover, more perfectly than I could otherwise do, the whole field, from the prehistoric times of this continent down to the present, with a minuteness of attention varying, of course, as the importance of the particular topic varies.

"I confess that I adopt for American history the principle which Professor Seeley, of Cambridge, is fond of applying to English history, namely, that while history should be thoroughly scientific in its method, its object should be practical. To this extent I believe in history with a tendency. My interest in our own past is chiefly derived from my interest in our own present and future; and I teach American history, not so much to make historians as to make citizens and good leaders for the State and nation. From this point of view I decide upon the selection of historical topics for special study. At present I should describe them as the following: The native races, especially the mound-builders and the North American Indians; the alleged Pre-Columbian discoveries; the origin and enforcement of England's claim to North America, as against competing European nations; the motives and methods of English colony-planting in America in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; the development of ideas and institutions in the American colonies, with particular reference to religion, education, industry, and civil freedom; the grounds of intercolonial isolation and of intercolonial fellowship; the causes and progress of the movement for colonial independence; the history of the formation of the national Constitution; the origin and growth of political parties under the Constitution; the history of slavery¹ as a factor in American politics, culminating in the civil war of 1861-'65. On all these subjects, I try to generate and preserve in myself and my pupils such an anxiety for the truth that we shall prefer it even to national traditions or the idolatries of party.

"As to methods of work, I doubt if I have anything to report that is peculiar to myself or different from the usage of all teachers who try to keep abreast of the times. I am an eclectic. I have tried to learn all the current ways of doing this work, and have appropriated what I thought best suited to our own circumstances. As I have students of all grades so my methods of work include the recitation, the

¹ Special students of history at Cornell University enjoy exceptional advantages for the study of the history of slavery, which will some day be considered more from an economic and social, and less from a moral and political point of view. Scientific studies of the subject of slavery have already begun at the Johns Hopkins University, and this note is to remind all students of the subject that the late Rev. Samuel J. May, of Syracuse, gave to the library of Cornell University his large and remarkable collection of books and pamphlets on slavery and the history of the anti-slavery movement in England and in this country. This collection has been further enriched by gifts from Mr. Richard D. Webb, of Dublin, Ireland; Mrs. Elizabeth Pease Nichol, of Edinburgh, Scotland; Mr. Charles Francis Adams; the Rev. Adin Ballou; the Rev. Samuel May, jr.; and many others. The University library at Ithaca; the Public Library of the city of Providence; and the public and private libraries of Washington, D. C., are the best places in the United States for the study of the "peculiar institution."

lecture, and the seminary. I have found it impossible by the two former to keep my students from settling into a merely passive attitude; it is only by the latter that I can get them into an attitude that is inquisitive, eager, critical, originating. My notion is that the lecturing must be reciprocal. As I lecture to them so must they lecture to me. We are all students and all lecturers. The law of life with us is co-operation in the search after the truth of history."

PRESENT STATUS OF AMERICAN HISTORY AT CORNELL.

In the first annual report of Charles Kendall Adams, the successor of Andrew Dickson White as professor of history in the University of Michigan, and afterwards as professor of history and president of Cornell University (1885), may be found the first instructor's report of American history, and, indeed, of all special branches of instruction at Cornell, signed in each case by the representative man. This is another Michigan feature of university administration introduced by President Angell at the beginning of his régime. While there are some objections to the method on general grounds, it is eminently satisfactory from the standpoint of an individual department, which thus secures an adequate representation of its condition and necessities.

Professor Tyler's report showed that, during the academic year 1885-'86 his classes numbered as follows:

Students in—	Fall term.	Winter term.	Spring term.
Senior lectures	35	34	34
Senior seminary	21	14	
Junior lectures	39	35	40
Junior seminary	33	31	31
Recitations in Von Holst	12	10	
Total	140	124	105

PROFESSOR TYLER FAVORS STUDY BY TOPICS.

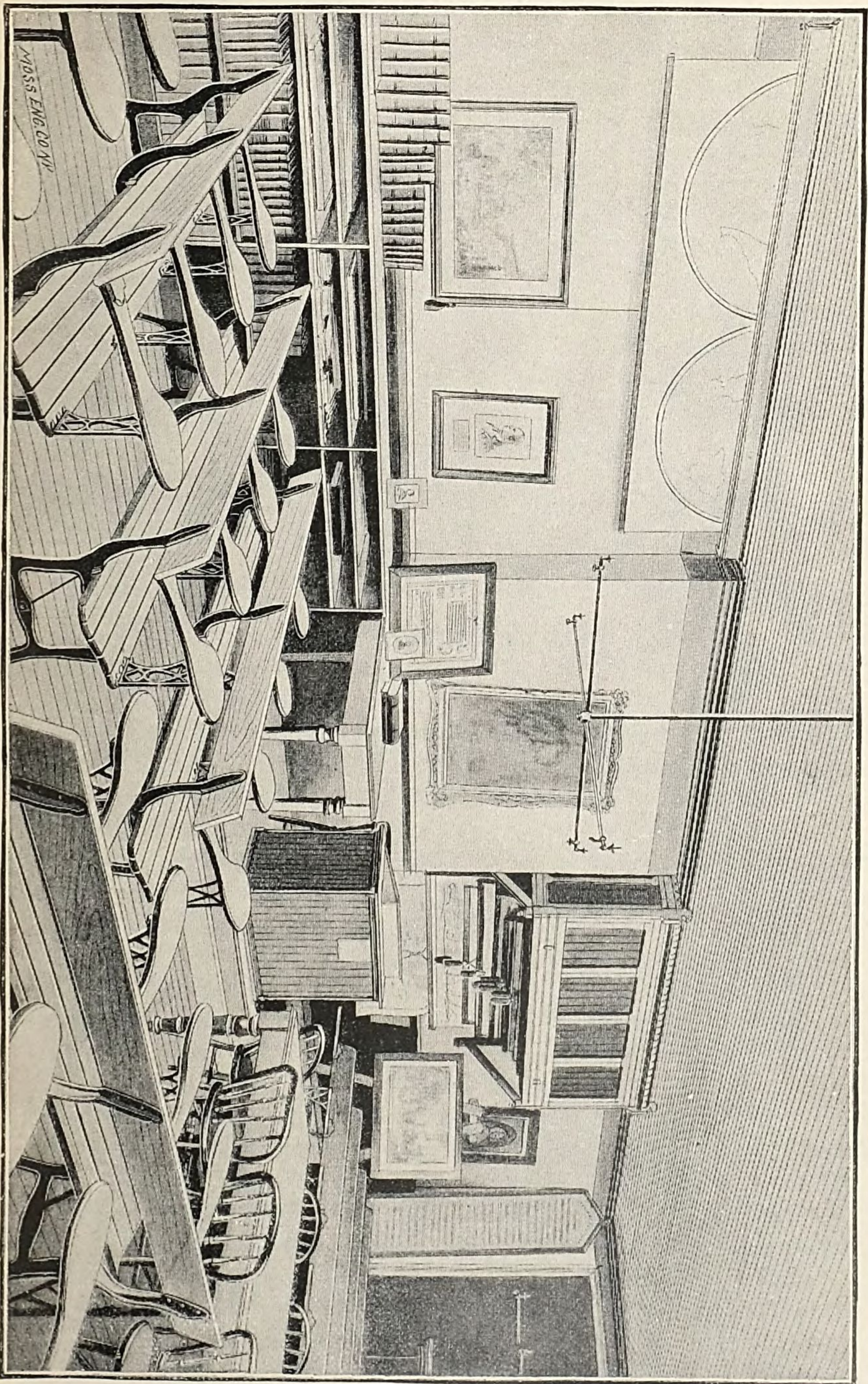
In his special report Professor Tyler says: "The one portion of my work during the year which has been the least satisfactory to me in its results was that in Von Holst. I introduced the work as an experiment. After two terms I convinced myself that I can get better results in other ways than in recitations from that author or from any other. It may be due to my own limitations as a teacher, but I can get far more work out of my pupils, even along the lines of Von Holst's volumes, can do more to quicken independent thinking on their part and to arouse in them enthusiasm for historical study, by setting them to the investigation of leading historical topics than by their learning of the contents of any one book for the purpose of reciting it to me. I do not ignore the necessity and the value of regular drill in learning and reciting history on the part of students in a certain stage of development. All my other work implies that when they come to me they have passed beyond that stage."

PROFESSOR TYLER'S SUGGESTIONS.

“For the future I see room for improvement in several directions : (a) In the more perfect adjustment and co-ordination of the different portions of our work in the department of history and political science ; (b) in greater care that students shall not be admitted into advanced work until they have qualified themselves for it by taking work which is preparatory. For instance, my presentation of American history presupposes on the part of my students a fair knowledge of modern European history, particularly of that of England, but not a few of them are very defective in such knowledge ; (c) in the greater use by the students of the historical library in real research, a thing only to be realized when all our students shall live somewhere near the university to which they belong and can thus easily make use of their half hours of daylight leisure and many of their evenings in the library ; (d) in the greater stimulus to historical and political studies which would be given by the presence of a vigorous law school ; (e) in the filling up of gaps in our historical library, particularly as to the primary documents.”

A VISIT TO PROFESSOR TYLER'S SEMINARY.

After a study of the documentary history of the historical department of Cornell University, a personal observation of its environment proved highly interesting to the present writer. He found the professor of American history in his private office, adjoining his seminary-room, to which there is a private entrance from the aforesaid office and a public entrance from one of the main halls of the university building. The seminary-room was well lighted and highly attractive to the eye. An ordinary recitation-room had plainly been transformed from its primitive savage state to an environment suggestive of civilized man and of human history. There was indeed a picture of the Claveras skull, the oldest of Americans, but there were also historical portraits and engravings upon the walls. The great map published by the Land Office of the United States was the most conspicuous thing in the room and showed that here American history was especially taught. Most interesting of all was the original map of New York, prepared in 1798 by General Simeon DeWitt, surveyor-general of the State, and showing the fountain-head of all those remarkably classic names which still designate the towns and counties of New York State. A better basis for local history could not be imagined than this original surveyor's map. Within easy reach of the instructor's desk was an excellent arrangement of general maps, suspended upon rollers, in an elevated case, from which any one map could be pulled down like a curtain. The room appeared to be a combination of lecture-room and seminary. There were desks arranged in a semicircle around the instructor's platform for class convenience in note taking, and there, too, at one side was the long seminary table, with chairs about it, charac-



LECTURE AND SEMINARY ROOM OF AMERICAN HISTORY—CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

teristic of smaller and more social assemblies where teacher and student meet upon a friendly footing with less formality than in the regular recitation. Close by the table was a convenient set of shelves for books of reference, maps, charts, diagrams, and the special collections of the seminary. An archæological museum, of which Professor Tyler is the curator, is deposited in another building in connection with the general museum of natural history, but the professor showed the visitor a written catalogue which was kept in the seminary-room to record each archæological or other gift made by students and also the locality whence each gift was derived. In such ways the department of American history and its historical environment are constantly improved by the co-operation of instructor and class. Although at the time of the writer's visit there was no class or seminary in session, it was not difficult in the light of facts already recorded in connection with Professor Tyler's work to imagine the scene at the giving of a lecture or the reading and discussion of a thesis. The picture of this seminary-room herewith presented may have a certain practical value in suggesting to other teachers and institutions the laboratory method of historical work.

GENERAL DEVELOPMENT OF HISTORY AND POLITICS SINCE 1881.

The year of the appointment of Professor Tyler to the chair of American history was the year of the return of President White from Germany, and this year marks an improvement of university work all along the lines of history and political science. It was the year of the engagement of the English historian, Edward A. Freeman, to lecture on general European history; of Charles Kendall Adams to lecture on English constitutional history; of Herbert Tuttle, who had been a special student of history and political science in Berlin, to give class instruction in English history and to lecture upon politics, international law, and diplomacy; of Henry Carter Adams, whom President White had met in Europe, to lecture upon political economy; and of two additional instructors in history to strengthen the foundations of the entire department by systematic instruction of the younger students. The subject of classical history which Professor Russel had represented was now relegated entirely to the classical department.

The year 1881 also marks the initiation of a general course of four years in history and political science, leading to the degree of bachelor of philosophy. This course had been recommended by President White ten years before. The freshman and sophomore years of the course were now regarded as preparatory to specialization in this department, somewhat according to the principles adopted at Columbia College and the University of Michigan. During these two preparatory years the class work *might* be identical with that in any one of the other three general courses leading to a degree in arts, literature, or philosophy. The conditions of entrance upon the general course in history and political science were made the same as for philosophy and literature,

namely, "the primary examination for admission to the university," in English grammar, geography, physiology, arithmetic, plane geometry, elementary algebra, and, in addition, French and German, and extra mathematics, Latin, and the outlines of Greek and Roman history as required for admission to the classical department; but not necessarily Greek, unless the candidate chose to approach the special course in history and political science through the classical avenue, in which case the conditions in French, German, and mathematics were lightened and an entrance examination in Greek was substituted. According to the first or more modern plan, a model four-years' course in history and political science would be as follows:

First year.

(Both languages are required in the course.)

First term.—French or German, 5 hours; Latin, 4; rhetoric, 2; geometry and conic sections, 5; military drill, 2.

Second term.—French or German, 5; Latin, 4; rhetoric, 2; algebra, 5.

Third term.—General European history, 2; French or German, 5; Latin, 4; rhetoric, 2; plane trigonometry, 3; military drill, 2.

Second year.

First term.—Grecian history, 2; English history, 3; French, 3; German, 3; essays and declamations, 1; Greek, Latin, modern languages, mathematics, or natural sciences, 3.

Second term.—Roman history, 2; English history, 3; French, 3; German, 3; essays and declamations, 1; Greek, Latin, modern languages, mathematics, or natural sciences, 3.

Third term.—Roman history, 2; English history, 3; French, 3; German, 3; essays and declamations, 1; theory of probabilities and statistics, 3; military drill, 2.

Third year.

First term.—Mediæval and modern history, 3; English constitutional history or systematic politics, 5; American history—prehistoric America and the period of discovery, 3; psychology, 2; sanitary science, labor laws, and penal discipline, or *optional*, 2.

Second term.—Modern history, 3; American history—the planting of the American colonies, 3; political economy, 2; moral philosophy and political ethics, 2; essays and orations, 2; *optional*, 3.

Third term.—Modern history, 2; American history—the institutions of the colonial times, 3; logic, 3; political economy, 2; essays and orations, 2; *optional*, 3.

Fourth year.

First term.—American history—the period of the Revolution, 1765–1789, 3; modern history, 3; English constitutional history or systematic politics, 5; history of philosophy and the natural sciences, 3.

Second term.—American history, first national period, 1789–1820, 3; modern history, 3; philosophy of history, 3; international law, 5; military science, 2.

Third term.—American history, second national period, 1820–1865, 3; modern history, 2; American law and jurisprudence (Professor Wilson), 5; finance and political economy, 5; preparation of thesis.

PRESIDENT CHARLES KENDALL ADAMS.

In the year 1885 Professor Charles Kendall Adams, who, since 1881, had been non-resident lecturer on history in Cornell University, was called from his resident professorship in the University of Michigan to succeed President White at Ithaca. Mr. Adams was appointed not only to the presidency but to the same professorship of history which Mr. White had so ably filled. With this appointment the historical department of Cornell University found itself planted a second time upon a corner-stone taken from the University of Michigan. The best experience of the latter institution in teaching history was thus again removed to the Ithaca foundation. From the first annual report of President Adams (1886) it appears that two of the special courses of lectures, which had been prepared at the University of Michigan, were given last year to students at Cornell. The subjects were (1) Theories and Methods of English Government; (2) Political History of England since the Napoleonic Wars. For the year 1886–'87 President Adams announces a course on the Rise of Prussia, which is also a portion of Cornell's inheritance from Ann Arbor.

With President Adams there came to Cornell University one of his special students, Mr. F. H. Hodder, who has given satisfactory instruction in general history and in elementary political economy, preparatory to the more advanced economic courses of Dr. Henry Carter Adams, who, since 1881, has spent half the university-year at Ann Arbor and the other half at Ithaca.

PROFESSOR HERBERT TUTTLE.

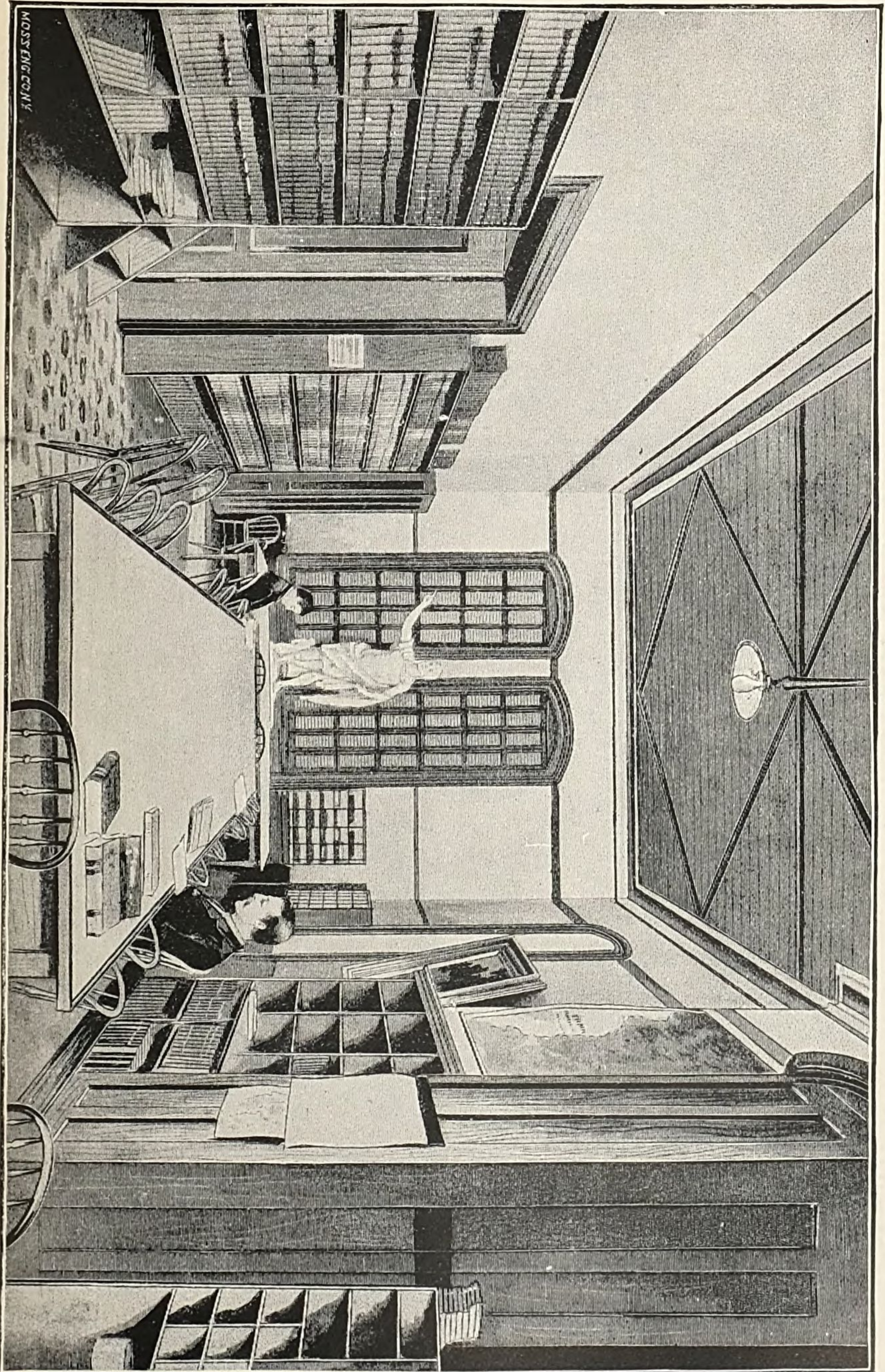
Although appointed to teach politics and international law, Professor Tuttle has devoted no little attention to the interests of history at Cornell University. He has been, from the time of his appointment in 1881, a representative of this subject, pre-eminently from a scientific and from a European point of view. He has devoted himself with great energy and decided success to writing the history of Prussia from a critical and unbiased standpoint. To aid in the prosecution of this important task, President White early saw to it that the University library was properly supplied with the necessary original materials, without which an attempt to write Prussian history in Ithaca would have been impossible. Aside from this literary work, Professor Tuttle has given systematic instruction in English constitutional history, and in the year 1885–'86, he gave a new and highly successful public course on European

History in the Eighteenth Century—a course which was the natural outgrowth of his studies in Prussian history. He has taken an active part in the historical seminary, where he suggested the following topics in the year 1886: (1) The Family, Clan, and Tribe; (2) Rousseau's Social Contract; (3) Federal Government; (4) Forms of Government; (5) Forms of Representation; (6) Constitution of Legislatures; (7) The Veto Power; (8) The Cabinet in England and America; (9) The Township; (10) Municipal Government; (11) The Civil Service; (12) The Jury System; (13) Appointment and Tenure of Judges; (14) Sources of Law; (15) Roman and Common Law; (16) The State and the Army.

Mr. Tuttle has recently, 1887, been made professor of the History of Political and Municipal Institutions and of International Law at Cornell University.

A VISIT TO PRESIDENT ADAMS' SEMINARY.

In company with President Adams and Professor Tuttle, the writer visited the seminary-room where the special and more advanced work of these two professors with their students is done. The room, which is high and well ventilated, adjoins the main library of the University, and is therefore most convenient for the prosecution of quiet, secluded studies within reach of adequate supplies of books and documents. The works most needed for frequent reference in English history, to the extent of about two thousand volumes, including, for example, Hansard's Debates, are kept upon open shelves in the seminary-room. There are the usual long tables, arranged T fashion, for the greatest convenience of the greatest number. The tables are provided with drawers, which lock, and each student is sovereign proprietor of his own place at the table. Around this friendly board graduate students, and seniors, competent and willing to elect the seminary course, assemble two hours each week for the discussion of original papers. The kind of topics treated is shown in the preceding list prepared by Professor Tuttle. Members of the seminary and other privileged students have access to the room during library hours, which are from 9 a. m. to 10 p. m. Besides the special collection of books employed in research, there are about one hundred and fifty periodicals, historical, political, literary, &c., kept in the seminary-room in their respective pigeon-holes. Besides a few interesting portraits which adorn the walls, the most noticeable work of historical art is a remarkably fine cast of the imperial statue of Augustus Cæsar, a cast presented to the University by a class of recent graduates. The gift was designed to form the beginning of a museum of plastic art, an idea which every historical department should foster in connection with a museum of archæology. If art is truly the very flower of history, as Herman Grimm well says, then historical teachers should foster the growth of its products as they do the collection of books and manuscripts; for, after all, the writing of history and even the preparation of historical theses is, or *should* be, an artistic process. *Good form,*



GENERAL HISTORICAL SEMINARY—CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

whether in men, statues, books, things done or said, is always a source of inspiration to students.

ADDITION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TO HISTORY AND POLITICS.

The most notable recommendation made by President White, toward the close of his régime in Cornell University, was that, in 1884, for the institution of "a course of practical instruction calculated to fit young men to discuss intelligently such important social questions as the best methods of dealing practically with pauperism, intemperance, crime of various degrees and among persons of different ages, insanity, idiocy, and the like." He first suggested the course in 1871, in language well worthy of perusal. (See *University Register*, 1871-'72, p. 44.) Such a course was authorized by the trustees, and has since been conducted by a non-resident professor, Mr. Frank B. Sanborn, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Charities and of the American Social Science Association. Not only were lectures given upon the subjects proposed, but, at the close of each week Mr. Sanborn visited, with his class of students, some instructive institution in the vicinity of Cornell University. They studied the local charities and punitive methods of the surrounding county; they went to the reformatory institution at Elmira, the lunatic asylum at Ovid, the State prison at Auburn, &c. Such excursions led to what President White well called "laboratory work in social science." Such methods have long been practiced by the pupils of Le Play in France, and Conrad in Germany; it is high time for their more general introduction into the American system of student-training. The best modern practice of European countries in the settlement of social questions is now a matter of history, of quite as much importance, perhaps, as the dynasties of Egypt or of Babylon.

The importance of instruction in social science was emphasized by Carroll D. Wright, president of the American Social Science Association, at its Saratoga meeting in 1886. He would have the subject taught, not only in colleges, but in high schools, in upper grammar schools, and even in Sunday schools.

MUSEUM OF ART AND ARCHÆOLOGY.

In the original plan for the organization of Cornell University, President White declared that "the University can never attain to the proportions we hope for it without some collections illustrative of the great arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting. While galleries of statues and paintings by artists just now in fashion are too expensive to be thought of, art collections of far greater educational value can be formed at an outlay comparatively trifling. The collections of casts at the German University at Bonn, and in the institutions at Boston, Ann Arbor and Toronto; the collections of photographs and medallions illustrating architecture and sculpture, and the collections illustrating the his-

tory of painting now forming at the University of Michigan, furnish examples of the equipment which ought ere long to be given to this department."

The first steps toward the realization of this ideal were taken in the supply of the classical department and the college of architecture with means of artistic illustration. The beginning of a collection of casts and pictures has already been made. The foundations for a museum of archæology were laid by President White in the gift of a collection obtained in South America during the expedition of Baron Henri de Rivière. Additions to this nucleus have been made from time to time. In 1881, when Moses Coit Tyler was appointed professor of American history, he began to interest his students in the further increase of this collection by donations, with a view to the better illustration of American archæology. Prehistoric antiquities from various parts of the world have been gradually brought together, and historical students at Cornell are now in position to study the art and development of prehistoric man from the comparative point of view. The archæological portion of the general museum has been under the direction of the professor of American history, and it has become a source of instruction second only to the historical libraries.

In his final report to the trustees in 1885, President White said, as he did virtually at the organization of the University: "I still feel that to accumulate collections of this sort in an institution like this is a necessity and a duty. We cannot indeed rival the great museums of the country, like those at Washington and New York, but we ought to have such a representative collection as would afford full means of illustration to the professor who brings the subject to the attention of his students. Collections and specimens in this department [American archæology] can be bought at present for comparatively small sums; the time is coming when they will cost far more. * * * I would also here impress again upon the trustees the necessity of looking forward to a proper receptacle for a collection of casts illustrative of classical art and archæology, history, sculpture, and plastic art in general. Every great university and technical school in Europe has such a collection either of its own, or in some institution in the neighborhood. The same is true of several important institutions in this country, especially Yale College and the University of Michigan."

LIBRARY FACILITIES IN HISTORY.

The growth of the historical department of Cornell University has been accompanied and greatly promoted by the addition of the following collections to the general library:

1. A large collection of several thousand works in history and in the literatures of England, France, Germany, and Italy, from President White's own library.

2. The Anthon library of seven thousand volumes, which is especially rich in works of classical and historical literature, and was once the working collection of Professor Charles Anthon during his long and useful career at Columbia College.

3. The Bopp library, of about twenty-five hundred volumes, representing oriental literature, and the foundations of comparative philology, laid by Professor Franz Bopp during his epoch-making career in the University of Berlin.

4. The Goldwin Smith library, now more than four thousand volumes, relating chiefly to English history and ancient and modern literatures. The first part of this collection was given to the University in 1869, and has since been greatly enriched by further donations.

5. The White Architectural library, a collection of over one thousand works on architecture, art, history, and archæology, made by Mr. White during a period of fifteen years, and embracing full sets of the leading architectural journals of England, France, Germany, and Italy, with a choice collection of monographs. With this library came a fund of \$1,500 from President White for the gradual increase of the collection.

6. The May collection of books and pamphlets relating to the history of slavery, one of the richest collections in this country.

7. The Sparks library of general literature and American history, purchased in 1872, soon after the professorship of American history was instituted and George Washington Greene appointed to the chair. This library, collected by the president of Harvard College and the first professor of history ever appointed at that institution, or, indeed, in this country, consists of about five thousand volumes and four thousand pamphlets.

8. In 1882, "as a supplement to the Sparks and May collections" (see annual report of President White, 1883, page 20), over \$5,000 was appropriated by the trustees "to special purchase of books in the department of American history." This was done for the encouragement of Professor Tyler, who, in 1881, was called from the University of Michigan to take this chair. The immediate occasion, however, of this liberal grant of money was the sale, in New York, of the famous O'Callaghan library, from which Professor Tyler authorized many purchases. In the year 1882 also came the deposit of "a large collection of works relating to the most recent period in our history, especially the time of the civil war." The same year was fitted up a special library for the use of historical students, with an equipment of maps.

9. In 1882 there was paid into the library fund, from the bequest of Mrs. Jennie McGraw-Fiske, more than \$600,000. This extra fund, although still in legal dispute, amounts now to over \$1,100,000, and, when the income of this vast sum is applied to the increase of the library of Cornell University, there is every reason to believe the confident statement of President White, made in his report of 1883, that the Cornell collection, then numbering about 50,000 well-chosen books, will become

“one of the foremost libraries upon this continent—indeed, one of the important libraries of the world.” Of course history will share in the appropriations from this generous bequest. In the year 1884-’85 over \$14,000 were appropriated to the library without touching the McGraw fund. Plans for a magnificent library building are already in an advanced state of preparation.

10. Besides the above library facilities, of interest to the historical student, there is a good collection of Russian history and literature, which was presented, in 1884, to Cornell University by the Hon. Eugene Schuyler, author of a *Life of Peter the Great*. There is also a very large collection of American newspaper files, the value of which, for historical purposes, many college libraries have yet to learn.

PRESIDENT WHITE’S HISTORICAL LIBRARY.

In his final report to the trustees, 1884-’85, President White said large gifts of books are sure to follow the completion of a fire-proof library building. “I know,” he added, “of one very valuable collection, numbering over twenty-five thousand volumes, which would come to the University to-day as a free gift were such a building in readiness to receive it.” It was early announced in 1887 that ex-President White had formally transferred to the University his own private library upon the above condition, and at a nominal valuation of \$100,000, with the understanding that the trustees should transfer from the general fund the above sum of money for the endowment of a historical professorship and of fellowships in history and political economy. One of the most important conditions of the gift requires that the university shall perpetually devote the income from \$10,000 to the increase of the collection. The architect of the new library building is instructed to provide for the collection a suite of apartments that will accommodate 40,000 volumes, besides the necessary facilities for seminary work. Thus, Mr. White has strengthened anew the foundations of his own former work at Cornell, and provided for the perpetuation of the historical collections of a lifetime.

President White’s collection, which the writer has seen, is particularly rich in works relating to the French Revolution and the Reformation. In addition to standard literature, there are many original documents, letters, state papers, and striking illustrations of the revolutionary period and of the time of Napoleon. Indeed, this library impresses the beholder as being not merely a magnificent collection of printed books, but as a wonderful literary museum. It is particularly interesting for its illustrations of early printing, and of the work of the German humanists, also of their controversies with the Obscurantists. English and Italian, as well as French and German, history is well represented, not only by the usual authorities but by many rare, quaint, and annotated volumes. Works of American history have been well selected. There are many thousand pamphlets bearing upon the late civil war, together

with many bound files of newspapers and other valuable materials upon the subject. The library is strong in materials for the history of science, of superstition, of witchcraft, sorcery, and magic; of criminal law and procedure, etc. In political and social science, in law and diplomacy, President White's collections are both rare and useful. The history of the fine arts is another prominent feature of this superb gift to Cornell University.

It is one of the wisest and most far-reaching modes of human philanthropy thus to provide for the preservation and use through all coming time of an excellent collection of books and manuscripts. By giving such things to a great university, a man's own enjoyment of his collections is increased and multiplied forever. This humane procedure is a happy contrast to those mercenary auction sales of valuable private libraries, the dispersion of which seems oftentimes like the scattering of a man's life-work to the winds.

RELATION OF THE LIBRARY TO THE UNIVERSITY.

An interesting and valuable feature of instruction in connection with the library of Cornell University is the course of elementary lectures on Bibliography, delivered by the acting librarian, Mr. George William Harris. The leading idea of this course is to trace "the history of the book, considered as the vehicle of literature." The printed syllabus, which is used in connection with the lectures, shows that the lecturer treats of the entire history of books and book-making, from the clay tablets and cylinders of Assyria, the palm-leaf books of India, and the papyrus rolls of Egypt, down to modern printing and book-binding. It is a distinctly historical course, with primary reference not so much to the contents as to the form of books. Such instruction to students by an accomplished librarian is of great value in teaching the unity of literature and the dependence of progressive science upon the labors of past generations. Books are the most precious inheritance of the living age. They are the intellectual capital with which its best work is done. A proper appreciation of the resources of science is the very best intellectual equipment with which a student can be graduated from a college or university.

Mr. Harris, in the latter part of his course, treats of practical questions in bibliography which every student ought to understand. The arrangement and classification of books in libraries and the various systems now in use are rapidly reviewed. The subject of catalogues and methods of cataloguing are suggestively handled. The reference library is shown to be the scholar's dictionary, which he should know how to consult as easily as a lexicon or an encyclopædia. The standard works on bibliography are described and the best works for general and special reference are mentioned. The course closes with a sketch of the most famous modern libraries, with special consideration of university libraries and private collections. Such a course of general bibliographical

information, given to students by the librarian of their college or university, cannot be too highly commended. Harvard, Michigan, Cornell, and Columbia have set the academic world a good example in making the library a real educational force.

Valuable suggestions with reference to the establishment of a closer *rapprochement* between students and the library were made by an assistant in Cornell University Library, Mr. Edwin H. Woodruff, in a paper on "University Libraries and Seminary Methods of Instruction," read at the annual conference of the American Library Association, in Milwaukee, Wis., July 9, 1886. The main thought in this paper is that the mere multiplication of mechanical devices for facilitating the finding of books is not sufficient. "The duty of a library is not merely to put into the hands of the reader in the shortest possible time something that any bookstore will do for a consideration; but its highest function should be to excite in him that intelligent love and reverence for books, and responsiveness to them, which have been experienced and celebrated by the best minds of all times—to kindle in him some of the joy that a confirmed book lover realizes in the friendship of books." The writer then attempts to show how this spirit may be engendered in students, how they and the library can be brought closer together. Mr. Woodruff admits that something has been accomplished by the system of reserving books for the special use of various classes; but this method breaks down unless students are required by their professors to show the practical results of private reading in such reservations.

The two points which Mr. Woodruff clearly brings out are both taken from the practical experience of the historical department of Cornell University, and of the close alliance which there subsists between the library administration, the historical seminaries, and teachers of historical classes. The first point is the desirability of fostering the seminary method of original research in college and university libraries. That method tends to convert one section of the library, say the historical, into a practical laboratory of really scientific work. Members of an historical seminary are given by their professor some subject for original investigation, with a sufficient suggestion of authorities to start them upon the difficult, but highly profitable, task of finding all that there is to be found upon that subject in the entire library, if not in all literature. Scattered facts are to be brought together, conflicting evidence is to be sifted down to a residuum of truth, and results are to be reported to the seminary and freshly combined in a scholarly monograph, which shall be a real contribution to science. This is the seminary method of library research. This is the first lesson for librarians to ponder and apply in every possible way.

The second lesson is like unto the first, save that it applies rather to undergraduate students, or to beginners in library work. It is called

the topical method. Students are assigned topics connected with their class course, topics not especially novel and requiring the use of standard authorities only and of well-known sources of information. The appointees are to report to their professor, or class, upon the results of their work, which, from necessity, must have been accomplished by private reading in the college or university library. The method differs from the seminary method in that it does not require original work, but merely the use of secondary information, to be acquired from authoritative literature rather than from original sources, such as State papers, published archives, Government documents, economic reports, &c. The topical method is simply a training process. The seminary method produces scientific results, not always of the highest order, but results acquired in a scientific way.

While these two methods of promoting study, *con amore*, in college libraries must always originate in professorial direction and student co-operation, nevertheless it is both the privilege and duty of college or university librarians to promote these methods by an intelligent mastery of the needs of the situation, by a quick response to the demand for Ariadne-threads that shall lead both students and professors through the great labyrinths of accumulated knowledge. Scholars do not want all knowledge at once; they want very specific information upon particular subjects; and good librarians are the best of all guides.

The writer understands Mr. Woodruff, of Cornell University, as making a plea for *personality* in the administration or representation of a great library. Just as our great railroad corporations now employ in all large stations well-informed men who know time-tables by heart and who can answer every possible question that a helpless traveler may put, so universities should appoint librarians who understand libraries, who have the vast mechanism at their fingers' ends, who know every key and stop in the wonderful organ, and who can bring forth at any minute the desired note or key of information. In order to realize this ideal, in order that the librarian may indeed become the *persona* through which the great library is made to respond to the needs of living men, there will be need of greater specialization, of department librarians, who are themselves keys for the *maestro* to touch. In one sense, every good librarian ought to be able to say, *La Bibliothèque, c'est moi*; but, in practice, he will need all the assistance, all the mechanical devices, and all the bibliographies that the art of man can furnish. Good administrative methods, catalogues, and co-operation with the student public will transform personal or absolute government of libraries into constitutional or self-government without impairing the efficiency of the librarian-in-chief.

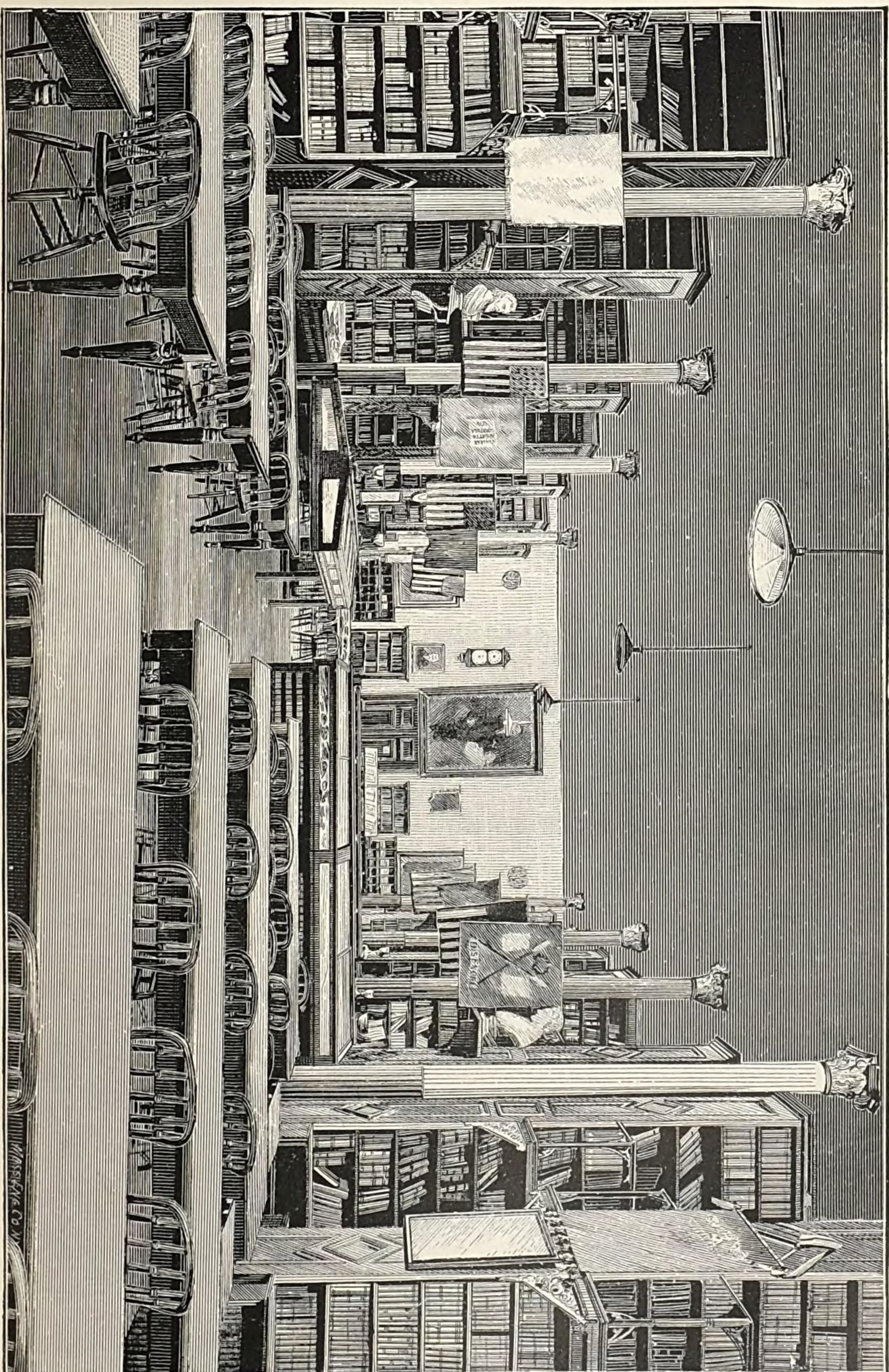
After all, the library is the best university, for it represents the sum and substance of all wisdom since the foundation of the world. To the library all teachers and all students must continually resort as to the fountain-head of knowledge and inspiration. Professors exhaust their little store of information; students pump them dry; but the library

remains an inexhaustible well of learning. Graduates may tarry at the university for years, and never be able to say of the library as they say of men, We have learned all that can be taught us. The foundation of English scholarship is graduate work in university libraries. Dr. Thomas Arnold, the Rugby historian of Rome, called the period of his fellowship at Oriel College his "golden time." For four solid years, as a graduate student, he read history and classical literature in the libraries of Oxford. In after life he wrote to Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, "I hope you will be at Oxford long enough to have one year at least of reading directly on the middle ages or modern times, and of revelling in the stores of the Oxford libraries. I have never lost the benefit of what I enjoyed in this respect, though I have often cause to regret that it is no longer within my reach."¹

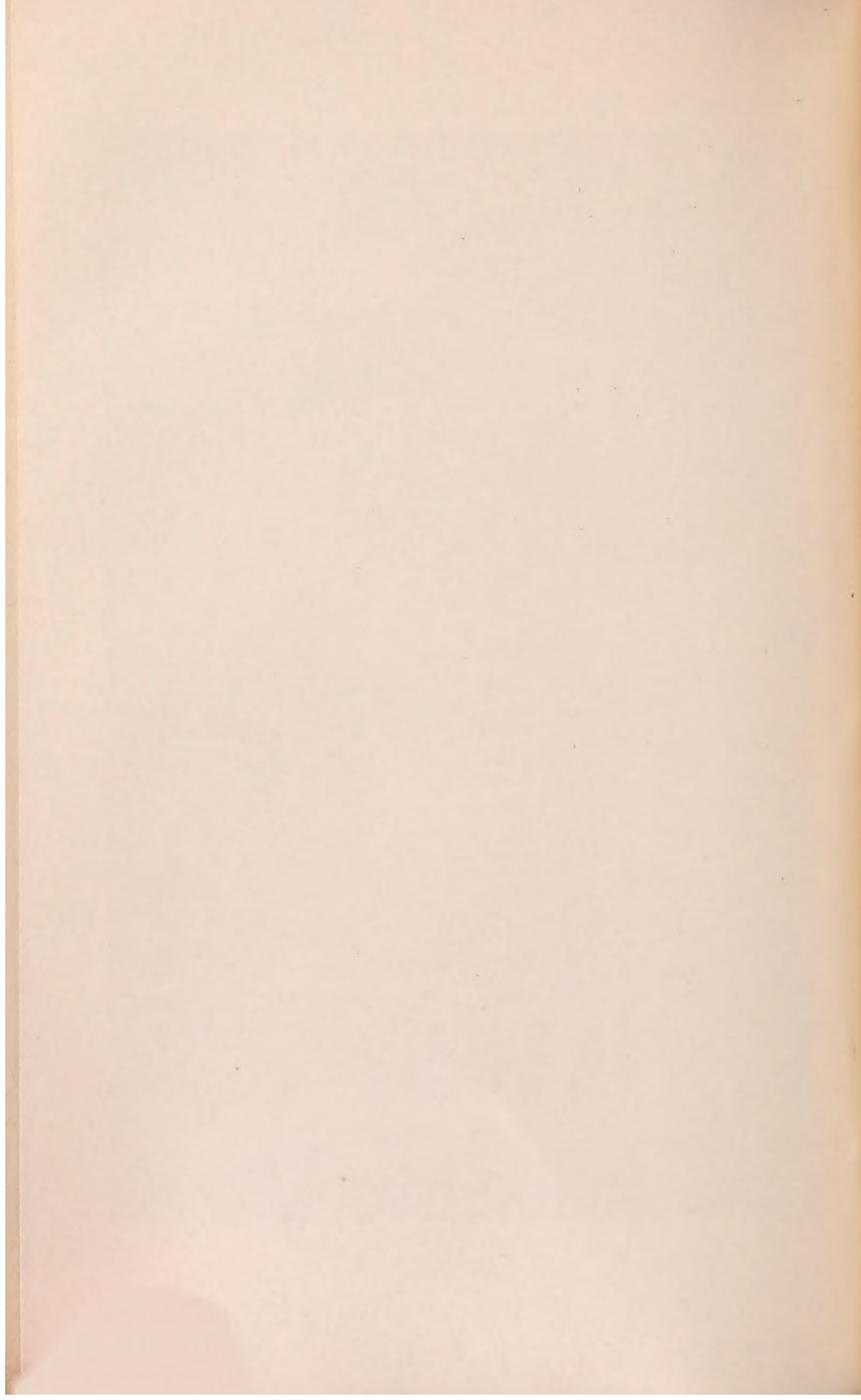
Cornell University is singularly fortunate, not only in the present possession of an excellent library, which is particularly rich in works of history, but in prospective and almost fabulous resources for the future increase of its collections. It is already one of the richest universities in the United States, and the income of the specific bequests to its library will also be among the largest in this land of colleges and universities. If the future students at Cornell do not become scholars and investigators, it will not be from lack of library privileges.

The writer has taken special pleasure in illustrating this chapter with views of the present library-interior of Cornell University and of its two historical seminaries, one of which is directly connected with the general library. But these views represent merely a transitional state of things. Plans are already drawn for new and better library accommodations, which will give the seminary method increased efficiency, as did the new library building at the University of Michigan. One object of the present report is to show the progress already made in connecting historical departments with the university library.

¹ Stanley, *Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold*, 245.



GENERAL LIBRARY OF CORNELL UNIVERSITY.



CHAPTER VI.

HISTORY AT THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.¹

I.

GRADUATE DEPARTMENT.

THE HISTORICAL SEMINARY IN BALTIMORE.

In 1876 the Johns Hopkins University was opened in Baltimore for the promotion of science and of college education. There was no intention of establishing in this country a German university, or of slavishly following foreign methods. The institution was to be pre-eminently American, but it did not hesitate to adapt the best results of European experience to American educational wants. The system of fellowships, which secured at once a company of advanced students for scientific work, was, from the very outset, radically different from that of England, or from the German system of *Privatdocenten*. It was a peculiarly American system for the encouragement of original research. The historical seminary, which was instituted as soon as university life in Baltimore began, was founded upon a purely American basis, and devoted itself strictly to American history. The director of this seminary, Dr. Austin Scott, was then associated with Mr. George Bancroft in Washington in preparing materials for the history of the formative period of the American Constitution, upon which Mr. Bancroft was then engaged. Dr. Scott, who spent most of his time in original research in the library of the State Department and with Mr. Bancroft in his own study, came to Baltimore once a week to conduct a session of the historical seminary, which met Saturday mornings.

The same course of constitutional studies, which Mr. Bancroft and Dr. Scott had pursued together, was now reviewed by six or eight university students under Dr. Scott's instructive guidance. The seminary had the feeling that they had been admitted to Mr. Bancroft's workshop, and

¹ This chapter was first published in the Johns Hopkins University Studies for January and February, 1884. The writer would have been glad to revise it more thoroughly and to add the results of three years' further development, but the pressure of other educational studies has prevented. The appended list of "University Studies in Historical and Political Science" will, however, illustrate the work of the department since the time when this chapter was written.

that, by the examination of his materials and his methods, they were being taught the art of constructing history. The very manuscripts which Dr. Scott had prepared, while collecting and sifting facts for Mr. Bancroft, were shown to the seminary. Questions still unsolved were submitted to Johns Hopkins students for their consideration in company with their instructor. Books from Mr. Bancroft's private library supplemented the resources of Baltimore. Original papers were prepared by various members of the seminary, and written words of encouragement for work like this came from the historian himself. The feeling was thus engendered that, in some slight ways, the seminary was contributing to the great volume of United States history. Between such creative methods of historical study and the old passive methods of reliance upon standard authorities and text-books, there was felt to be a vast difference. And yet the new methods were very simple. Instead of each man buying an expensive work of constitutional history, a set of the journals of the old Congress, the Madison Papers, Elliot's Debates, the writings of Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, and a few other sources of information contemporary with the formation of the Constitution were brought together upon a long table in the library of the Maryland Historical Society, where seminary sessions were held, and where special facilities were afforded for original research. Around this common board gathered the seminary, which was composed originally of six or eight men, four of them "fellows" of the university. The director sat at the head of the board, and usually gave a short lecture or informal "talk," introductory to the discussion of specific topics which had been assigned for research during the previous week. Reports were made, papers were read, and general interest was awakened in special questions touching the origin and growth of the American Constitution. The relation of the States at the close of the Revolutionary war, economic questions, commercial problems, the Western lands, the influence of the Army, the question of revenue, the efforts of statesmen, the origin and history of the great conventions, the constitutional platforms proposed, the course and results of debate, the adoption of the Constitution by the various States, the administration of Washington, the rise of parties, all of these questions and many more were studied in detail by members of the historical seminary.

Dr. Scott's weekly seminary was continued, at convenient intervals, during a period of five years. The best results of this period of study were presented to the university by Dr. Scott in the form of ten public lectures, delivered in January, 1882, upon the development of the American Constitution, under the special topics of nationalism and local self-government; the federative principle; self-assertion of the national idea; reaction; transition; power of the masses; economic questions; socialism; revolution. Various original papers were prepared in connection with this seminary, and a few have found their way into print. A monograph, by the writer of this report, upon "Maryland's Influence

in founding a National Commonwealth," with two minor papers upon "Washington's Land Speculations," and "Washington's Influence in opening a Channel of Trade between the East and West," was published in 1877 by the Maryland Historical Society (Fund Publication, No. XI). An article by W. T. Brantly, of the Baltimore bar, upon "The Influence of European Speculation in the Formation of the Federal Constitution," was published in the Southern Law Review (Saint Louis) August and September, 1880. In 1881 Mr. Bancroft's great work was published in two large volumes, and seminary work in this attractive field was brought to a close. But attention was now being directed towards the field of American local institutions, the earliest germs of our colonial, state, and national life.

JUDGE COOLEY'S SEMINARY.

Before considering the newer phases of the historical seminary in Baltimore, it is fitting to say a word concerning the seminary of constitutional law, instituted by Judge T. M. Cooley, during his lectureship in Baltimore, 1877-'79, at the request of members of Dr. Scott's historical seminary. This other seminary was conducted for the special purpose of expounding the text of the Constitution of the United States and of comparing its provisions with the unwritten constitution of England. These exercises, which occurred once a week, consisted chiefly of comment by Judge Cooley, with questions and discussion by the class. Each member had a copy of Paschal's Annotated Constitution and of Baldwin's text, with references to constitutional decisions. The exercises were made especially profitable to students of history in consequence of the legal turn given to the discussions of the seminary by its lawyer-members and by Judge Cooley. Decisions of the Supreme Court, modifying or interpreting the text of the Constitution, were frequently cited, and the conception of our constitutional law as an organic growth instead of a machine, was thereby strengthened and deepened.

A NEW DEPARTURE.

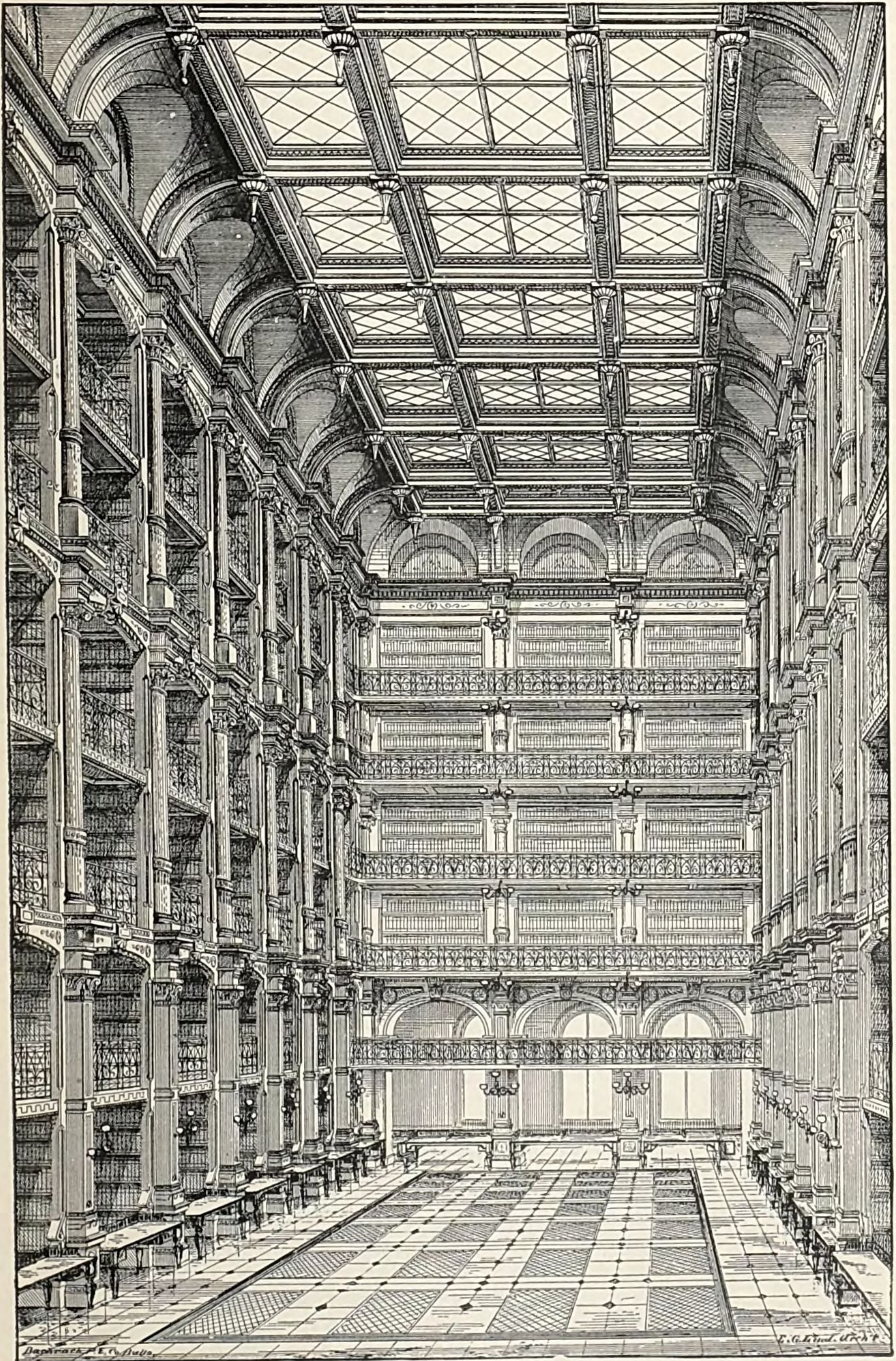
In the autumn of 1880 had already begun a new departure in historical instruction at the Johns Hopkins University in the introduction of American institutional history as a distinct branch of historical study. The idea was the outgrowth of a special interest in municipal history, first quickened in a seminary at Heidelberg, thence transplanted to Baltimore, where it was fostered by the reading of the writings of Sir Henry Maine, in connection with those of Carl Hegel, Maurer, Nasse, Waitz, Stubbs, and of the Harvard school of Anglo-Saxon law. The continuity of the Germanic village community in New England had been originally suggested to Sir Henry Maine by an article in *The Nation*, communicated by Professor W. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin. It was determined as early as 1877, after consultation with Professor Henry Adams, then and now living in Washington, to apply this

principle of continuity to the town institutions of New England. Spring sojourns for four terms, beginning in 1878, at Smith College, Northampton, Mass., and summer vacations spent in old towns along the New England coast made it possible to attempt this study, the first fruit of which was presented in 1880 to a mixed class of graduate and undergraduate students at the Johns Hopkins University, in a course of lectures, one hour a week, for one semester, upon the History of Plymouth Plantations, a course based upon an original study of the colonial and town records of Plymouth. The only work required of the class in this connection was an examination upon Sir Henry Maine's lectures on "Village Communities in the East and West." The next year, 1881, a similar course was given to advanced students only, upon "Salem Plantations," based upon vacation studies in Massachusetts.

By this time, kindred researches in the colonial and local records of other States were in progress among college graduates from various parts of the Union. A student from South Carolina was investigating the parish system of his native State. Maryland men were studying Maryland institutions. But, while advantage was thus taken of local environments, even of summer residence, these were not the only considerations which governed the allotment of territory. A New England man was encouraged to investigate the origin and development of the municipal government of New York City. Another graduate from the northeast section of the Union began to study the local government of Michigan and the Northwest, and the results of his work were read at the general meeting of the American Social Science Association in 1882, and afterwards published in their proceedings for that year. The article was republished in the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, first series, number 5.

It was a part of the new seminary plan to have its studies published in the proceedings of learned societies, in historical magazines, and in other ways suited to the propaganda of American institutional history. Especially was it desired to obtain local recognition for local work. A paper on local government in Pennsylvania was read before the Pennsylvania Historical Society and published in the Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography. It was also intended that these local publications should ultimately be brought together again in a regular university series. The American Antiquarian Society, the New England Historic, Genealogical Society, the Essex Institute, the secretary of the American Social Science Association, and editors of magazines kindly co-operated in furthering this aim of the seminary; and the trustees of the Johns Hopkins University, in the autumn of 1882, enabled the project to be carried out in the shape of a monthly periodical devoted to "Studies in Historical and Political Science," five volumes of which are now complete.

The new historical seminary of graduate students began its Saturday mid-day sessions in the autumn of 1881, in a small lecture-room of the



PEABODY LIBRARY, BALTIMORE—90,000 VOLUMES.

Peabody Institute, which contains a library most admirably equipped for special research and numbering about 90,000 volumes. Here, around a long table, half a dozen advanced students met together twice a week, once for a study of the sources of early European history with special reference to Germanic peoples, and once for lectures and original papers on the local institutions of the United States. All the sources of information, used or mentioned by members of the seminary, were exhibited upon the long table, and were passed around for purposes of illustration. The advantage of seeing and handling the books mentioned in a lecture or bibliography is very great compared with the simple transcription of catalogue-titles into a note-book, a method prevailing in German lecture-courses. The Baltimore seminaries are laboratories where books are treated like mineralogical specimens, passed about from hand to hand, examined, and tested.

In the spring semester of 1882 the institutional section of the historical seminary began to hold Friday evening sessions, of two hours each, for the convenience of certain young lawyers, graduates of the University, who desired to participate in the institutional work. Meantime the library resources of the Johns Hopkins for the furtherance of such study had been increasing. It was thought expedient to fit up a special library-room for the accommodation of the seminary, which had now increased to eighteen members. A seminary altar in the shape of another long table was accordingly erected, and book-shelves were built around the room, within easy reach. Here the peripatetic school of American history assembled anew and held weekly sessions until the close of the spring semester of 1883, continuing, however, its weekly meetings at the Peabody Institute for the study of the sources of English history. The historical seminary early associated with itself the graduate students in political economy and certain professors and advanced students of history and politics in other colleges. In this associate capacity the seminary is known as the Historical and Political Science Association.

An idea of the nature of the subjects discussed by the seminary can be given by mentioning those reported in the Johns Hopkins University Circular, August, 1883, among the proceedings of societies, from April 6 to May 30, 1883: Topical instruction in history, by Professor William F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin; letters from a university student in Germany, on German methods of writing and teaching history; the limits of co-operation, by E. R. L. Gould, fellow of history; historical remarks on Talbot County and the Eastern Shore of Maryland, by Dr. Samuel A. Harrison, of Easton, Maryland; customs of land tenure among the boys of McDonogh Institute, Baltimore County, by John Johnson, A. B. [a very remarkable paper, illustrating not only the advantage of studying local environments but socialism in miniature]; socialistic and co-operative features of Mormonism, by the Rev. G. D. B. Miller, of St. Mark's School, Salt Lake City; Machia-

velli, by Edgar Goodman, A. B.; the influence of John Locke upon political philosophy, by B. J. Ramage, A. B.; the office of public prosecutor, by F. J. Goodnow, A. B., now professor of administrative law in Columbia College; the income tax in the United States, by H. W. Caldwell, A. B., now instructor of history in the University of Nebraska; Hugo Grotius, the founder of modern international law, by Arthur Yager, A. B., now professor of historical and political science, Georgetown College, Kentucky; review notices of the 300th anniversary of the birth of Grotius, by Dr. J. F. Jameson, associate in history, J. H. U.; America as a field for church history, by Dr. Philip Schaff, of the Union Theological Seminary; taxation in Maryland, by C. M. Armstrong, of the Baltimore bar; review of certain results of the United States census of 1880, by John C. Rose, lecturer in the University of Maryland [Law School]; the revised tariff in its relation to the economic history of the United States, by Talcott Williams, A. B., of the editorial staff of the Philadelphia Press. Abstracts of some of these papers or communications were published in the University Circular, for August, 1883, and some of the articles have been printed in the University Studies. The article last named, on the tariff, was published by the Society for Political Education.

Occasionally specialists from other colleges or distinguished strangers who are visiting the city are present by invitation. Among other guests, President White, of Cornell University, has addressed the seminary. It is of no slight interest for young men to have among them, now and then, some veteran in the field of history or politics, who by his pithy sayings and friendly suggestions can sometimes do more in a half hour for the development of the seminary than would days of passive reading. The older members of the seminary can never forget the deep impression made upon students of history in Baltimore by the late Professor J. L. Diman, of Brown University, who, during his lectureship at the Johns Hopkins University, addressed the Association of Historical and Political Science. The younger members still speak with pleasure of Mr. Edward A. Freeman, who, by special invitation, gave the university students of history six extempore "talks" upon the geography and history of Southeastern Europe, whence he had recently come. Nor will some of these students ever forget the enthusiasm with which Mr. Freeman entered into the rooms for special research in the university library to examine the ancient laws of Maryland and to talk of English institutions with the students who were there at work. Among other interesting addresses, given especially for the benefit of the seminary, was that by James Bryce, M. P., regius professor of civil law in the University of Oxford, on "The Relation of Law to History." Mr. Bryce gave a general course to students of the University on "English Problems," but the special lecture was by request of the students of history. (For a brief abstract of his remarks, as reported by the secretary of the Historical and Political Science Association, see University Circular,

February, 1882.) On the 23d of November, 1883, Mr. Bryce addressed the seminary upon the subject of De Tocqueville's Democracy in America,¹ suggesting certain points of criticism and original research (see University Circular, January, 1884). Dr. H. von Holst, of the University of Freiburg in Baden, addressed the seminary October 12, 1883 (see University Circular, January, 1884), upon the study of slavery as an institution, with suggestions as to the possibilities of the Southern field of research for students at the Johns Hopkins University.

With the opening of the academic year, 1883-'84, the seminary of historical and political science took up its abode in new and more spacious rooms than those hitherto occupied. The seminary is now established in the third story of the building devoted to the main University library, of which the seminary books form a subordinate section. As you enter the seminary library, which occupies a room 51 by 29 feet, the most noticeable object is the long library table around which students are seated, every man in his own place, with his own drawer for writing materials. Upon the walls above the table are portraits of men who have influenced the development of the Baltimore seminary—G. H. Pertz, Bluntschli, Freeman, Bryce, Bancroft, Von Holst, Cooley, Diman. Busts of Jared Sparks, Francis Lieber, Alexander Hamilton, John C. Calhoun, and other distinguished representatives of history and politics, give to mere aggregations of books the presence of personality. The library is arranged in alcoves around the seminary table with primary regard to the convenience of students, who help themselves to books without any formality. American history (State and national) occupies the most honored place. International law, politics, administration, economics and social science, history (European, ecclesiastical, classical, oriental), archæology, and law (Roman, German, French, and English), has each its proper place. Within the alcoves are tables for special work, which places are assigned to advanced students holding the honors of the department. These tables are somewhat secluded from the general view by revolving book-cases, wherein books in current use are placed, as we say, "on reservation." The newspapers taken by the department are distributed in the various alcoves of politics, economics, law, history, &c. Religious journals are to be found upon the ecclesiastical table.

The current magazines of historical and political science, together with new books and university publications, are kept upon the long seminary table, which represents the center of scientific life for those who gather about it. The latest and freshest contributions are here displayed; and when the new becomes old, it is swept away into the alcoves, to side tables, where it still remains for some weeks on exhibition until it is finally classified in pigeon-holes, pamphlet files, or bound volumes. The back numbers of all special magazines, like the *Revue*

¹ An elaboration of this subject by Mr. Bryce constitutes a number of the *J. H. U. Studies* (September, 1887).

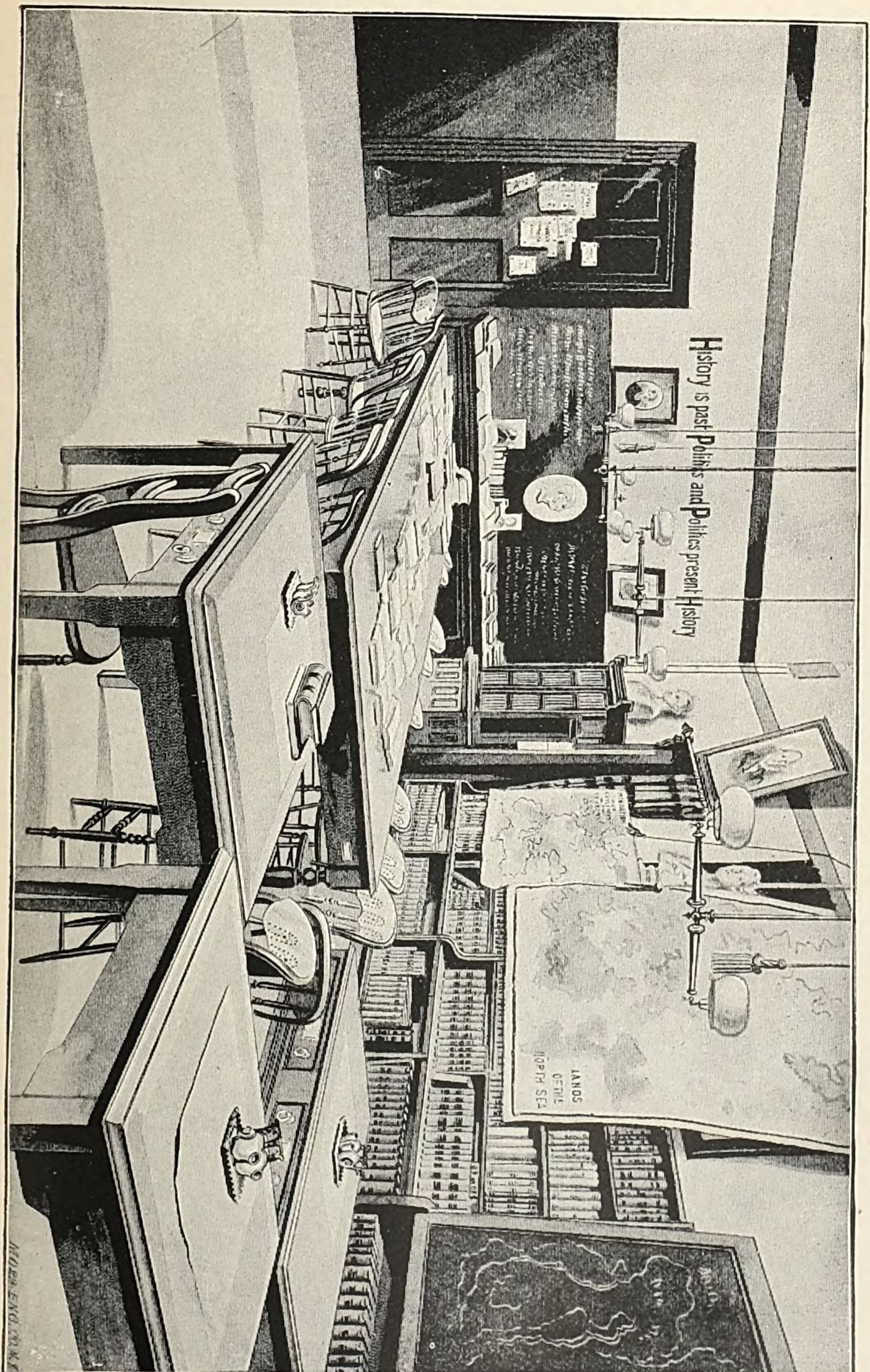
Historique, Historische Zeitschrift, Preussische Jahrbücher, Tübinger Zeitschrift, Conrad's Jahrbücher, Revue de Droit International, taken by the department are kept for consultation in a room specially devoted to that purpose. In addition to these rooms, there are separate offices for the various instructors, two lecture-rooms, a newspaper bureau, a geographical and statistical bureau, and the beginning of an historical museum, some of which features of the seminary will be described in another connection.

SEMINARY LIFE.

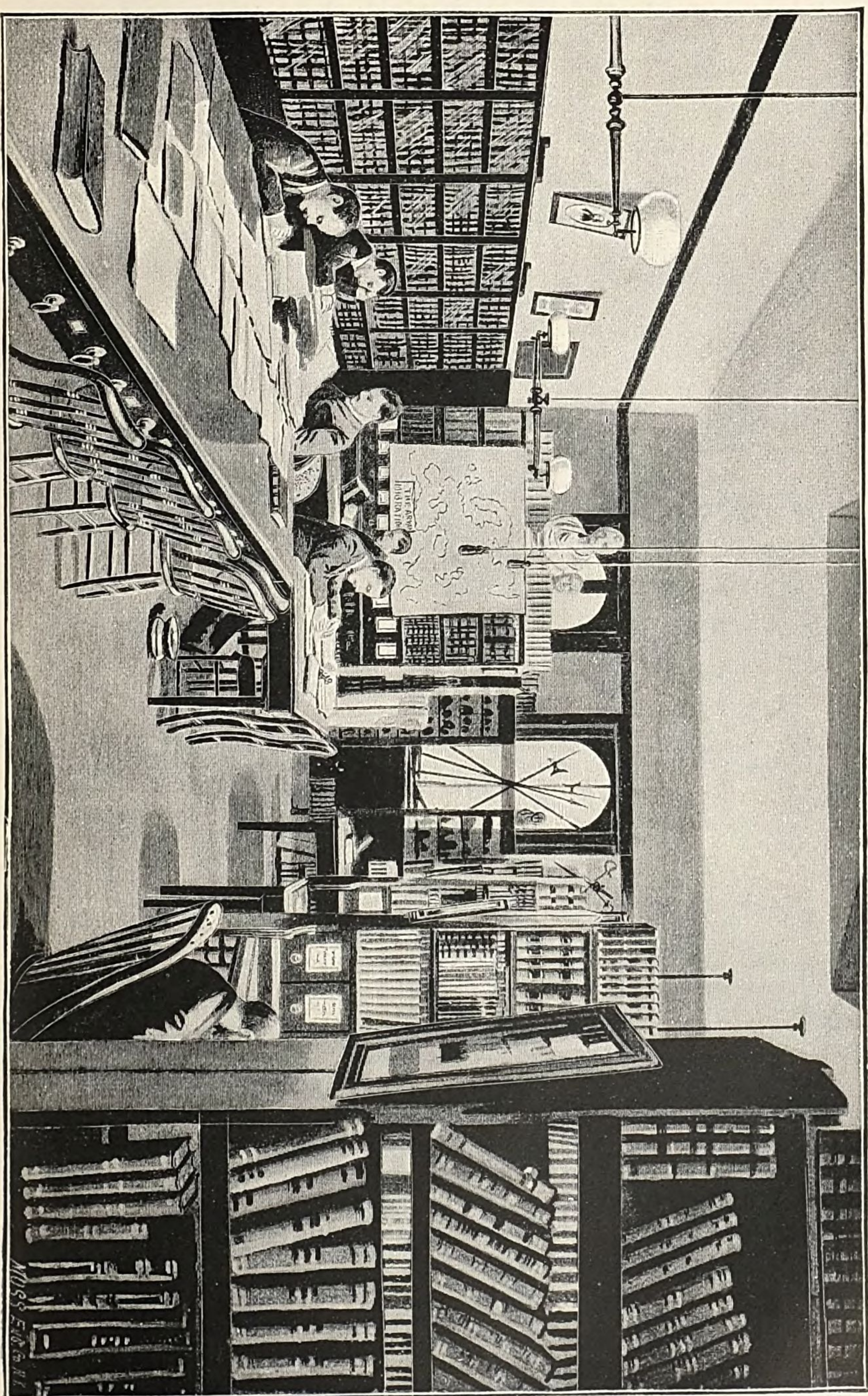
It is easy thus to outline a few external characteristics of the seminary, but difficult to picture its inner life. Its workings are so complex and varied that it cannot be confined within walls or restricted to a single library. Its members are to be found, now in its own rooms, now at the Peabody Institute, or again in the library of the Maryland Historical Society. Sometimes its delegates may be seen in the libraries of Philadelphia, or in the Library of Congress, or in some parish registry of South Carolina, or in some town clerk's office in New England. One summer the president of the University found a Johns Hopkins student in Quebec studying French parishes and Canadian feudalism. The next summer this same student, afterwards a fellow of history, was visiting Iona and tramping through the parishes of England. He called by the wayside upon the English historian, Mr. Freeman, at his home in Somerset. Once the seminary sent a deputy in winter to a distant village community upon the extreme eastern point of Long Island, East Hampton, where he studied the history of the common lands at Montauk, with the queen of the Montauk Indians for his sovereign protectress and chief cook. Half a dozen members of the seminary have gone off together upon an archæological excursion, for example to an old Maryland parish, like St. John's, where lies the ruined town of Joppa, the original seat of Baltimore County; or again, to North Point, the scene of an old battle ground and the first site of St. Paul's, the original parish church of Baltimore; and still again, to Annapolis, where, with a steam launch belonging to the Naval Academy, and under the guidance of a local antiquary, they visited Greenberry's Point, upon the river Severn, the site of that ancient Puritan commonwealth which migrated from Virginia and was originally called Providence, from which sprang the Puritan capital of Maryland. Reports of these archæological excursions, written by members of the seminary connected with the Baltimore press, found their way into the public prints, and were read by many people in town and country, who thus became more deeply interested in the history of Maryland.

The scientific sessions of the seminary, two hours each week, are probably the least of its work, for every member is engaged upon some branch of special research, which occupies a vast amount of time. Researches are prosecuted upon the economic principles of division of

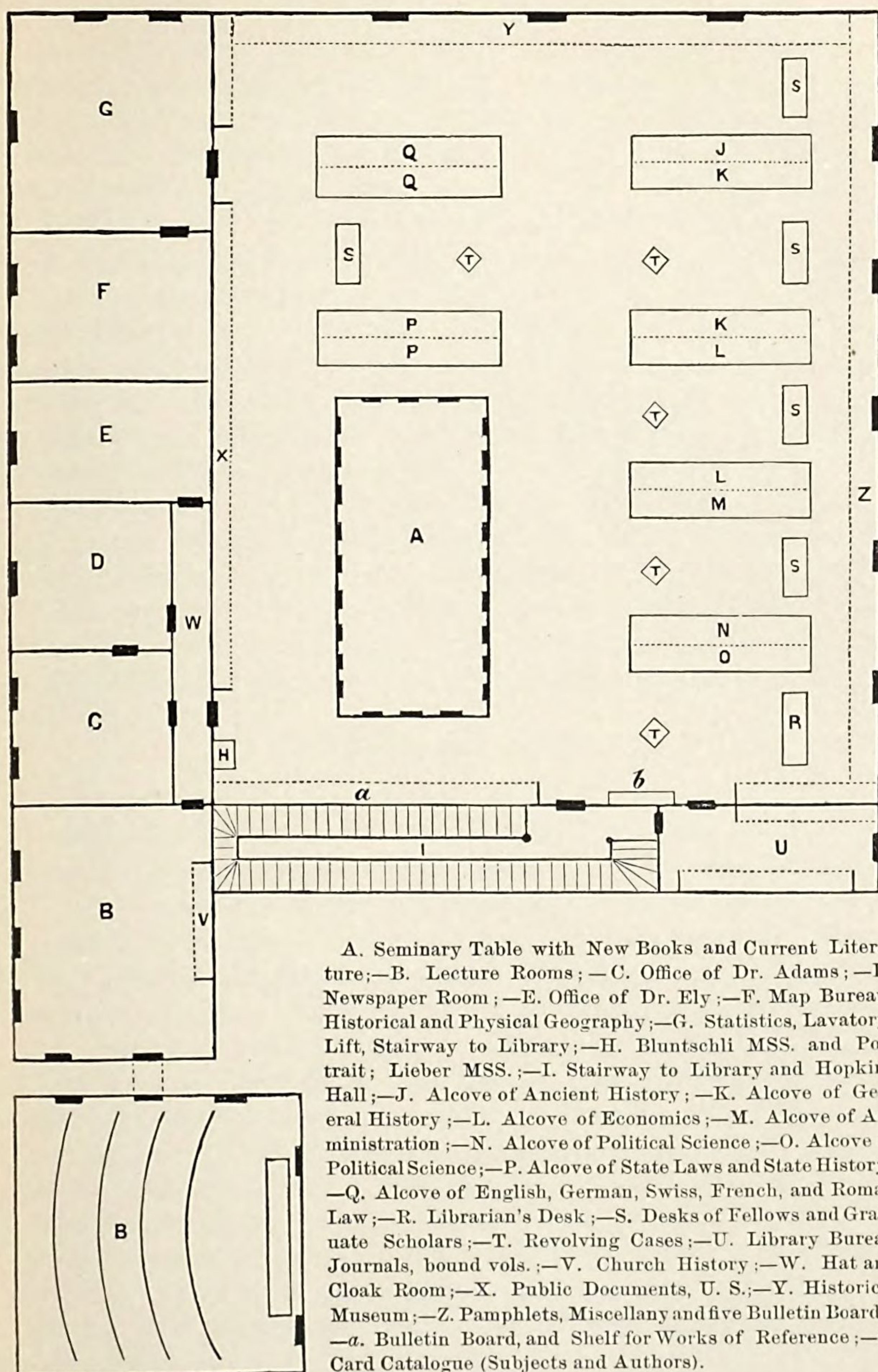
History is past Politics and Politics present History



HISTORICAL SEMINARY, LOOKING EAST—JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.



HISTORICAL SEMINARY, LOOKING WEST—JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.



GROUND PLAN OF THE HISTORICAL SEMINARY.

labor and co-operation. This co-operation appears, not merely in the interdependence of student monographs, but in every day student life. A word is passed here, a hint is given there; a new fact or reference, casually discovered by one man, is communicated to another, to whom it is of more special interest; a valuable book, found in some Baltimore library or antiquarian book-store, is recommended or purchased for a friend. These things, however, are only indications of that kindly spirit of co-operation which flows steadily on beneath the surface of student life. It is interesting to observe this spirit of friendly reciprocity even among rivals for university honors, that is, for fellowships and scholarships. Individual ambition is undoubtedly a strong motive in student work, but there is such a thing among students everywhere as ambition for others, call it class spirit, *esprit de corps*, good fellowship, or good will to men. The Baltimore seminary is individually ambitious, but it hails with delight the rise of similar associations elsewhere—at Harvard University, at the University of Pennsylvania (Wharton School), Cornell University, University of Michigan, University of Wisconsin, University of Nebraska, and University of California. All these seminaries are individually ambitious, but it is ambition for the common cause of science. They are all pushing forward their lines of research, but all are co-operating for the advancement of American history.

THE SEMINARY LIBRARY.

The library of the seminary of historical and political science began in the collection of colonial records, State laws, and American archives for the encouragement of students in American institutional history. The collection was at first increased from the main library of the University, which transferred all *special* works relating to this department; then, gradual purchases were made of institutional and economic material from England and Germany, in the special interest of the seminary. In December, 1882, the private library of the late Dr. John Caspar Bluntschli, of Heidelberg, was incorporated into that of the seminary, after presentation to the University by the German citizens of Baltimore. The Bluntschli library, containing nearly three thousand volumes, with about four thousand pamphlets, represents the scientific collections of a broad-minded specialist in historical and political science, whose horizon of interest widened gradually from the pent-up limits of a Swiss canton to modern European states and to the law of nations. Bluntschli's professorial position at Munich as historian of political science and as editor of the German political dictionary, his life as professor and practical politician at Heidelberg, his presidency of the Institut de Droit International, brought him into scientific association with specialists, not only in Germany, but in Holland, Belgium, France, Italy, Austria, Russia, and England; consequently, his library is especially rich in books which came to him from distinguished writers in all these countries. Upon the basis of this European collection,

representing the laws and history of the Old World, the Baltimore seminary, conscious of its Heidelberg inheritance, proposes now to build up an American collection which shall represent the history, laws, and institutions of the New World. Already, since the acquisition of the Bluntschli collection, the seminary library has increased to over eight thousand volumes. Besides many private donations, it has received various large gifts of Government documents, from the State Department and from the Department of the Interior; and it will henceforth be one of the Maryland repositories for all public documents issued by the United States. The seminary has sent out a circular letter to secretaries of the individual States, mayors of cities, and to prominent officials in various stations, requesting donations of documents and reports for the increase of its library; and the returns are altogether gratifying. It is hoped that gradually the different strata of American institutional and economic history, from local and municipal to State and national life, may be represented in the scientific collections of the Johns Hopkins University.

BLUNTSCHLI AND LIEBER MANUSCRIPTS.

The most cherished part of the seminary library is kept in a special case, devoted to the writings of Bluntschli and Lieber. The Bluntschli family understood well that the manuscripts of the deceased scholar and statesman would be most fittingly preserved in connection with his own library. Although the manuscript collection was no part of the original purchase made by the German citizens of Baltimore in the interests of the University, yet with the purchased library came also the manuscripts as a free gift. They comprise not alone the materials used in some of his great works, but also written lectures upon various subjects and even his note-books, kept while listening as a student to great masters like Niebuhr and Savigny. The note-books are all firmly bound and are written in the same neat, fine hand which characterized Bluntschli's manuscripts to the last. These note-books, quarto size, with six large pamphlet-boxes of written lectures, and other manuscript materials, have for two of Bluntschli's pupils, now instructors in the department of history and economics, a certain *Affectionswerth*; and for all others who visit or use the library these original manuscripts are an object of very great interest. They are kept together with a complete set of Bluntschli's own writings, which are very numerous and include a large collection of special monographs. It is by a peculiar historic fitness that the published works and manuscripts of two men like Bluntschli and Lieber, who were devoted friends in life, are now brought together after their death. Bluntschli and Lieber never met face to face; they were friends, however, by long correspondence and by common sympathies. Lieber used to say that he in New York, Bluntschli in Heidelberg, and Laboulaye in Paris formed a "scientific clover-leaf," repre-

senting the international character of French, German, and Anglo-American culture.

The widow of Francis Lieber, rejoicing that the Bluntschli Library is now in America, has determined that the manuscripts of her husband shall henceforth be associated with those of his old friend. She has accordingly sent to the Johns Hopkins University the Lieber papers, with annotated, interleaved copies of his various works. They have all been placed in the same case with the Bluntschli writings, to which have been added the works of Laboulaye, so that the "scientific clover-leaf" will remain undivided. Lieber's bust, presented by his widow, now stands by the side of Bluntschli's portrait. Although Laboulaye became alienated from his two old friends in consequence of the Franco-Prussian war, yet, as Bluntschli well said, "that community of thought, science, and endeavor, which we represented for three peoples and for three civilizations, is not broken up, but will broaden and deepen and become more fruitful, as surely as the peculiar spirit and individual forms of nationality, existing of their own right, find their true harmony and highest end in the development of humanity."¹

THE PAMPHLET COLLECTION.

The most available part of the Bluntschli Library is its pamphlet collection. Scholars were in the habit of sending to him their minor treatises; so that his collection of monographs is of a very superior character and, in all probability, could not be duplicated. The collection has been rapidly increased by frequent pamphlet donations from President Gilman, Hon. George William Brown, and other members of the board of trustees; from lawyers in Baltimore and various friends of the University. The problem of adequately providing for the temporary exhibition and final preservation of these incoming pamphlets was a difficult one to solve. Books are easily managed in alcoves and in department groups, but the proper treatment of unbound, defenceless pamphlets is the hardest thing in library administration. The solution attempted in the seminary is the preliminary exposition of new pamphlets in special groups—law, politics, economics, social and educational questions, history, etc., upon a long table extending the full length of the library at right angles with the book alcoves and following the alcove classification; *i. e.*, all historical pamphlets are in immediate proximity to historical books. Beneath the long table are very many pigeon-holes for the temporary classification of pamphlets and magazines that have passed the exhibition stage. In their final treatment, magazines are bound and placed in a room specially devoted to bound journals; old pamphlets are gathered together in Woodruff files

¹ Dr. J. C. Bluntschli, "Lieber's Service to Political Science and International Law," an article written by request as an introduction to the second volume of Lieber's Miscellaneous Writings, edited by D. C. Gilman, President of the Johns Hopkins University.

(now in general use in Government Departments at Washington) and are placed upon book-shelves by the side of that class of books to which the pamphlet category belongs. The Woodruff file holds a vast number of pamphlets upright, with the title-pages facing the person opening the file. This receptacle has a wooden front, bearing the label of the pamphlet class, and opens like a drawer. The rapidity and ease with which pamphlets can thus be handled are very great improvements upon old-fashioned pamphlet-cases or Clacher-boxes. With all pamphlets indexed in a card-catalogue by subject, author, and class, any minor treatise of a few pages may be as quickly found as a bound volume. For students, these minor treatises are often of more consequence than ponderous folios. The Woodruff file can be made to suit pamphlets of any width or any height. The size chiefly used by the seminary is 11 inches high, $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches wide, and $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches deep. These dimensions fit exactly the shelving allotted to pamphlets. It is very important to have the wooden front of sufficient height to fill the space between two shelves, in order to keep out dust. For the latter purpose, the so-called "Clacher-box" is excellent. It has a spring-back and a bottom-slide upon which the pamphlets stand upright when drawn out from the case. Clacher-boxes are used in the seminary upon the tops of revolving book-cases, where they stand firmly by their own weight and where pamphlets can be handled without touching the receptacle save opening its door and pulling out the bottom slide.

PAMPHLET GROUPS.

The following classification of seminary pamphlets has been prepared as a simple report of progress, without any pretensions to completeness, even with reference to the seminary collections, wherein remains much material yet to be assorted. The list will serve to characterize the convenient method of grouping masses of pamphlets in Woodruff files. The rubrics will, of course, be differentiated and continually increased as new materials are added and as the old are gradually better arranged. Pamphlets cease to be rubbish as soon as they are classified upon scientific principles. "It is impossible to say," declares Justin Winsor, "what ephemeral publication may not become of cardinal interest."

Historical.

Ancient History;—Church History;—European History;—United States; New England;—New York;—Pennsylvania;—New Jersey and Delaware;—Maryland;—Baltimore;—Virginia;—the South in general;—the Civil War;—Western States;—Territories, etc.

Political.

Political Philosophy;—Political Science;—Administration;—Civil Service Reform;—Elections;—Representation (Minorities);—Political Questions;—(a) United States, (b) England, (c) France, (d) Germany, (e) Austria, (f) Switzerland, (g) Italy, (h) Greece, (i) Russia, etc.

International Law.

General International Law;—Institut de Droit International;—International Conferences;—Arbitration;—Intervention;—Extradition;—Neutrality;—Treaties;—War;—Consular Reports;—Private International Law.

International Politics.

Foreign Relations of the United States;—England;—France;—Germany;—Switzerland;—Italy;—Russia;—Schleswig-Holstein;—Franco-Prussian War;—Eastern Question;—International politics in general.

Institutional.

Institutions in general;—The Family;—Marriage;—Contracts;—Slavery;—Serfdom;—Nobility;—Land Tenure;—Local Institutions;—City Government;—State Government;—National Institutions;—Public Lands, etc.

Constitutional.

United States;—England;—Switzerland;—Law of Cantons, (a) Appenzell-Lucerne, (b) Neuchâtel-Zürich;—German Empire;—Laws of German States, Anhalt-Württemberg;—France;—Austria;—Italy;—Greece, etc.

Legal.

Law in general;—History of Law;—the Civil Law in general;—Civil Procedure, (a) Roman, (b) in General;—Judicial Organization;—Criminal Law;—Penal Codes;—Sachsenspiegel;—Schwabenspiegel;—other early Codes;—Law of Personal Relations;—Succession;—Inheritance;—Swiss Private Law;—Law Tracts;—Law Briefs (American);—Sales;—Literary Property, etc.

Economic.

Economic History;—Baltimore Economics;—Maryland Economics;—Economics of Cities;—State Economics;—U. S. Finance;—Money;—Banking;—Checks;—Mortgages;—Debts;—Tariff;—Labor and Capital;—Laboring Classes;—Manufactures;—Commerce;—Shipping;—Railroads;—Canals;—Internal Improvements;—Agriculture;—Statistics, etc.

Social.

Social Science, (a) American Association, (b) Philadelphia Association;—American Colonization Society;—Social Problems;—The Poor;—Prisons and Prison Reform;—Charities, (a) of Baltimore, (b) other Cities, (c) in general;—Organization of Charities;—Temperance Reform;—Sanitary Science;—Parks, Village and City Improvement, etc.

Religious and Ecclesiastical.

History of Religions;—Religion in general;—Church and State;—Ecclesiastical Law;—Ecclesiastical Questions (Europe), (a) before the Vatican Council, (b) since the Vatican Council;—Religious Questions in America;—Religion and Science, etc.

Educational.

Education in general;—Education in Baltimore;—Peabody Institute;—Johns Hopkins University;—Universities and Colleges;—Common Schools;—Education in New England;—Southern Education (Slater and Peabody Funds);—Indian and Negro Education;—Industrial Education;—Bureau of Education;—Libraries;—Library Administration;—Bibliographies;—Catalogues and Book Notices.

Since the above list was prepared the seminary has received a large donation of pamphlets from Hon. George W. Dobbin, president of the board of trustees, also the loan, by the president of the university, of a large portion of his private and official collections. This new material greatly enriches the pamphlet stores of the seminary, and will lead to the formation of many new rubrics. Another valuable donation of pamphlets was that received in the spring of 1884, from Mrs. Francis Lieber, of Newport, R. I., who contributed a valuable private collection of Dr. Lieber's monographs and a rare set of pamphlets relating to the Mexican Claims Commission, upon which Dr. Lieber served as umpire. It is interesting to find, among the Lieber papers, articles that were sent him by Bluntschli, and, among the Bluntschli pamphlets, many that were presented by Lieber.

THE NEWSPAPER BUREAU.

One of the most interesting, if not the most valuable, features of the seminary library, is the so-called newspaper bureau. This consists primarily of an office wherein the newspapers of the day are reduced to their lowest terms for purposes of historical and political science. Files of representative journals are contributed to the seminary by the Young Men's Christian Association, the University Club, and by the Mercantile Library, of Baltimore, while many critical journals are obtained directly for the seminary by private donation or in exchange for University publications. Certain files, like the *Saturday Review*, *The Nation*, *The American* (of Philadelphia), *The Literary World*, *The Critic*, *The Economist*, *Bradstreet's*, etc., are preserved for future reference; but the great majority of papers are cut to pieces for scientific purposes. A competent force of graduate students work an hour or two each week under direction, and mark superior articles upon economic, political, social, educational, legal, and historical subjects. These marked papers are excerpted and pasted upon octavo sheets of stiff manila paper by an office boy. They are afterwards indexed at the top, are classified in Woodruff files, and kept like pamphlets.

While by far the greater portion of the newspaper clippings find their way into these files for future reference and final sifting by special committees (thus furnishing sometimes suggestive materials for a report to the seminary), the choicest extracts from a few leading papers are placed upon the seminary table or upon special bulletin-boards devoted each to some one department. There is one board for Foreign Intelligence or International Politics, where in turn appeared France in Asia, the question of international control of the river Congo, England in Egypt, etc. Another bulletin-board bears the heading "American Politics," with special subheadings chalked out from week to week. A third board is devoted to Economic and Social Questions, where the Tariff figures largely. A fourth space is given up to General History, a fifth to Ecclesiastical matters, and a sixth, the largest of all, to Book

Notices, Education, University affairs, and student interests in general. The subheadings under which the various clippings are grouped are frequently changed, the old material being cleared off and a new lot tacked up. The idea is to exhibit the current topics, political, economic, and educational, etc., in so far as they relate to the interests of the seminary. The young men who attend to these bulletin-boards for their fellow-students are learning not only critical and orderly methods, but also the potential process of making up a journal of historical and political science. They are learning to be journalists and editors. Without professing to be a school of journalism, the seminary has furnished writers for each of the prominent papers in the city of Baltimore and for some at a distance, while several of its members have secured important editorial positions.

But the chief advantages of the newspaper bureau are for the seminary at large. The classification and preservation of the best articles on economic, social, and political topics are found by all to be exceedingly useful. How often does one wish that he had saved the report of some court decision, important trial, political discussion, scholar's address, a statesman's speech, a department report, a mayor's message, or a striking editorial! How often these things would work into the warp and woof of a student's task, if he could only lay his hand upon them at the right moment! It is idle to disparage the daily press; it is worse than idle to sneer at present politics. Some of the best energies of our time are revealed in the newspaper and in politico-economic discussion. We may believe one of Berlin's professors when he says "*Das was heute Politik ist, gehört morgen der Geschichte an.*"¹ This is only another form of the motto adapted from a saying of Mr. Freeman's—"History is past Politics and Politics present History"—a motto printed upon the wall of the seminary, immediately above the chief bulletin board and by the side of the English historian's portrait. So well does Mr. Freeman appreciate the political spirit of the historical seminary that he frequently sends it a budget of English newspapers, with marked articles, for example, upon the Lord Mayor, London Municipal Reform, Borough Elections; the Speaker of the House of Commons, Government and the Suez Canal, Canada, Australian Confederation, the Flemish Movement in Belgium, the Norwegian Ministry, the Queen's Speech, Mr. Freeman's Lecture before the Gloucester Cathedral Society, Henry George, Land Reform Union, Representation, the Parliamentary Franchise, the Stowe Manuscripts in the British Museum, etc.

A most interesting illustration of the value of newspapers, even for the student of the Norman Conquest, is the report published in the *Sussex Express*, August 4, 1883, of the proceedings of the Royal Archaeological Institute, during its summer excursion to Lewes,² the Castle

¹ What is Politics to-day becomes History to-morrow. (Droysen, *Historik*, 4.)

² Mr. Freeman's address at the annual meeting of the Archaeological Institute at Lewes, July 31, 1883, is printed in the *Archæological Journal*, vol. xi, 335, "The Early History of Sussex."

of Pevensey, to Hastings, and the hill of Senlac, when Mr. Freeman reviewed, in open air, the story of Harold and the Norman invader. If historians and newspapers can make such scenes live anew and kindle signal interest among students on this side of the Atlantic, then are historical writings and newspaper heralds worthy of honorable association.

LIST OF JOURNALS.

The following special journals, magazines, reviews, newspapers, and other periodicals are at present received by the Seminary of Historical and Political Science. Some are obtained by subscription; others in exchange for University publications; still others by donation or through the courtesy of public officials. The seminary is under special obligations to the Mercantile Library, the Young Men's Christian Association, the University Club (all of Baltimore) for the gift of newspapers for clipping purposes; to the University Library for the deposit of special reviews in the department of Historical and Political Science; and to the Publication Agency of the University for the care taken in securing exchanges that are useful to students of history, economics, and social problems.

Historical.

Revue Historique, bi-monthly, Paris;—Bulletins de la Société Historique et Cercle Saint Simon, occasional, Paris;—Historische Zeitschrift bi-monthly, edited by H. von Sybel, Munich and Leipzig;—Antiquarian Magazine, monthly, edited by Edward Walford, London;—Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass.;—Proceedings of the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society, Philadelphia;—The American Antiquarian, quarterly, edited by the Rev. S. D. Peet, Chicago;—Proceedings of the American Historic, Genealogical Society, Boston;—The Magazine of American History, edited by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb, New York;—Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography, Philadelphia;—Maryland Historical Society Fund Publications, occasional, Baltimore;—Southern Historical Society Papers, monthly, edited by the Rev. J. William Jones, Richmond;—Essex Institute Historical Collections, quarterly, Salem, Mass.;—Contributions of the Old Residents' Historical Association, occasional, Lowell, Mass.;—The Bay State Monthly, published by John A. McClintock & Co., Boston;—The Granite Monthly, edited by J. N. McClintock, Concord, N. H.;—Kansas City Review (of Archæology and Anthropology), edited by T. S. Case, Kansas City, Mo.;—The United Service, a monthly review of military and naval affairs, Philadelphia;—the Western Historical Magazine;—The Ohio Archæological and Historical Quarterly, etc.

Political.

A.—FOREIGN MAGAZINES.

Zeitschrift für die gesammte Staatswissenschaft, bi-monthly, edited by Doctors Fricker, Schäffle, and Wagner, Tübingen;—Preussische Jahrbücher, monthly, edited by H. von Treitschke and H. Delbrück, Berlin;—Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung, Verwaltung und Volkswirthschaft im Deutschen Reich, in parts, edited by Gustav Schmoller, Leipzig.

B.—AMERICAN SPECIAL PUBLICATIONS.

Civil Service Record, monthly, Boston and Cambridge;—Publications of the Civil Service Reform Association, New York;—Congressional Record, daily, Washing-

ton;—Monthly Bulletin of the Publications of the U. S. Government, James Anglim, Washington;—Journal of the House of Delegates and Senate Journal, daily, Annapolis.

C.—WEEKLY PAPERS.

The Nation, New York;—The Weekly Press, Philadelphia;—The American, Philadelphia;—The Advertiser, Boston;—The Sunday Herald, Boston;—The Springfield Republican;—The Cincinnati Weekly News;—San Francisco Weekly Bulletin.

D.—DAILY PAPERS.

The Sun, The American, The Herald (all of Baltimore);—The Post, Washington;—Evening Post, New York;—New York Herald;—New York Tribune;—Cincinnati Commercial-Gazette;—Chicago Tribune;—Saint Louis Republican;—Minneapolis Tribune;—Toronto Globe;—Louisville Courier-Journal;—Richmond Dispatch;—Charleston News and Courier;—Boston Journal;—Der Deutsche Correspondent (Baltimore).

Economical.

The Bankers' Magazine and Statistical Register, monthly, edited by Albert S. Bolles, New York;—Bradstreet's,—a Journal of Trade, Finance, and Public Economy, weekly, edited by M. F. Ford, New York;—Economic Tracts, published by the Society for Political Education, New York;—The American Protectionist, weekly, edited by Marcus Hanlon, New York;—The American Free Trader, monthly, New York;—The Economist, weekly, London;—The Investor's Manual, weekly, London;—L'Économiste Français, weekly, Paris;—Journal des Économistes. Revue de la Science Économique et de la Science Statistique, monthly, Paris;—Jahrbücher für National ökonomie und Statistik, monthly, edited by J. Conrad, Jena;—Baltimore Manufacturer's Record, weekly;—Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Treasury on the State of the Finances, Washington;—Bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, quarterly, edited by J. L. Hayes, Boston;—Annual Reports, Baltimore Corn and Flour Exchange.

Statistical.

Journal of the Statistical Society, quarterly, London;—Zeitschrift des königlich. Preussischen Statistischen Bureaus, semi-annual, edited by E. Blenck, Berlin;—Quarterly Reports of the Bureau of Statistics, Washington;—Statistical Abstract of the United States, occasional, Washington;—Reports of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Massachusetts, and of the U. S. Bureau of Labor, Carroll D. Wright.

Geographical.

Petermann's Mitteilungen aus Justus Perthes's Geographischer Anstalt, monthly, edited by Dr. E. Behm, Gotha;—Publications of the U. S. Coast Survey and of the U. S. Corps of Engineers.

Municipal.

Mayors' Messages and Reports of City Officers, annual, Baltimore, Boston, New York, Brooklyn, Providence, Chicago, Saint Louis, San Francisco, Charleston, Cleveland, Toledo, Kansas City, etc.

Social.

La Réforme Sociale, fortnightly, Paris;—Reports of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, blue books, annual, London;—Howard Association Reports (for crime-prevention and penal reform), annual, London;—Reports of the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, Massachusetts, annual;—The Journal of Social Science, containing the proceedings of the American Social Science Association;—Publica-

tions of the Philadelphia Social Science Association;—Reports of the Society for the Protection of Children from Cruelty and Immorality, annual, Baltimore;—The American Sentry, weekly, New York;—Progress, weekly, Philadelphia;—The Woman's Journal, weekly, Boston;—Annual Reports of the New York Society for the Suppression of Vice.

Socialistic.

The Christian Socialist, monthly, London;—Justice, weekly, London;—To-day, monthly, London;—Wochenblatt der New Yorker Volkszeitung;—Die Fackel, Sonntagsblatt der Chicagoer Arbeiter-Zeitung, Socialistic Publishing Company, Chicago;—Vorbote, unabhängiges Organ für die wahren Interessen des Proletariats, weekly, Socialistic Publishing Company, Chicago;—Truth, a journal for the poor, edited by B. G. Haskell, San Francisco;—Sociologist, monthly, Knoxville, Tenn.;—Le Prolétaire, organe officiel de la fédération des travailleurs socialistes, weekly, Paris;—The Free Soiler (advocating the nationalization of land), monthly, edited by J. B. Robinson, New York;—The Workman, etc.

Legal and International.

Revue de Droit International et de Legislation Comparée, monthly, edited by Alphonse Rivier, Bruxelles and Leipzig;—Reports from the Consuls of the United States;—the Legal Adviser, weekly, edited by E. M. Haynes, Chicago.

Religious and Ecclesiastical.

The Christian Union, weekly, New York, edited by Rev. Lyman Abbot and H. W. Mabie, New York;—The Congregationalist, weekly, edited by Rev. H. M. Dexter, Boston;—The Independent, edited by Rev. W. H. Ward, New York;—New York Observer, weekly, founded by Rev. Irenaeus Prime;—The National Baptist, weekly, edited by Rev. Dr. Wayland, Philadelphia;—The Christian Intelligencer, weekly, edited by Rev. J. M. Ferris and Rev. N. H. Van Arsdale, New York;—The Christian Advocate, weekly, edited by J. M. Buckley, D. D., New York;—The Examiner, weekly, published by Bright, Church & Co., New York;—The Presbyterian, weekly, edited by Rev. Dr. Grier, Philadelphia;—New York Weekly Witness, edited by John Dugall *et al.*;—The Churchman, weekly, New York;—The Southern Churchman, weekly, edited by the Rev. Dr. Sprigg, Richmond;—The Presbyterian Observer, weekly, edited by Rev. J. M. Maxwell and W. J. Graham, Baltimore; The Catholic Review, weekly, edited by P. V. Hickey, New York;—The Standard, weekly, edited by J. A. Smith, D. D., Chicago;—The Western Christian Advocate, weekly, edited by F. S. Hoyt, D. D., and J. J. Hight, D. D., Cincinnati;—The Episcopal Methodist, weekly, Rev. W. K. Boyle, Baltimore;—The Cumberland Presbyterian, weekly, edited by J. R. Brown, D. D., and D. M. Harris, D. D., Nashville;—The Protestant Standard, weekly, edited by Rev. J. A. McGowan, Philadelphia;—The Methodist Protestant, weekly, edited by E. J. Drinkhouse, D. D., Baltimore;—The Christian World, weekly, edited by Rev. E. Herbruck and Rev. M. Loucks, Dayton, Ohio;—Der Lutherische Kirchenfreund, weekly, Chicago;—The Christian Observer, weekly, edited by Rev. F. B. and T. E. Converse, Louisville;—The Episcopal Recorder, weekly, edited by Rev. Wm. Newton, D. D., and Saml. Ashhurst, M. D., Baltimore.

Literary and Educational.

The Literary World, fortnightly, Boston;—The Critic and Good Literature, edited by J. L. and J. B. Gilder, New York;—The Current, weekly, edited by E. L. Wakeman, Chicago;—The Overland Monthly, San Francisco;—Publications of the City and Guilds of London Institute for the advancement of Technical Education;—Annual Reports of the Public Education Association, Philadelphia;—Publications of the Cleve-

land Educational Bureau (Books for the People);—Ward and Lock's Penny Books for the People (Historical and Biographical Series), London;—The School Herald, fortnightly, edited by W. I. Chase, Chicago;—The Southern Workman, monthly, edited by S. C. Armstrong and H. W. Ludlow (printed by students), Hampton, Va.;—The Morning Star, monthly, Carlisle, Pa. (representing the Indian Industrial School);—The Week, McDonogh Institute, Baltimore County, Maryland (printed by the boys and representing a remarkable juvenile society, described by Johnson in the "Studies");—The African Repository, quarterly, Washington, D. C. (organ of the American Colonization Society);—The Herald-Crimson, daily, Cambridge, Mass.;—The Amherst (Mass.) Student;—Johns Hopkins University Circulars, monthly, Baltimore.

Bibliographical.

Harvard University Bulletins, quarterly, edited by Justin Winsor, Cambridge;—Bulletins of the Boston Public Library, quarterly;—Worcester Free Public Library, Lists of Additions, with Notes, monthly, edited by S. S. Green.

The above lists represent merely the special periodical literature which is given or intrusted to the seminary by associations, the general library administration, the publication agency, and various other friends. All magazines and journals which are of general scientific or literary interest to the university public are kept in the University reading-room. Whatever is thought to pertain more especially to work going on in historical and political science is relegated to that department. Some few journals, for example The Nation, and certain library bulletins are taken in duplicate. In the eighth annual report of the president of the University there is published a list of foreign exchanges. The last printed list of the periodical literature received by the University was issued in the Annual Register of 1880-'81. That list and the above should be revised and greatly enlarged, to represent faithfully the journals and periodicals now accessible to Baltimore students.

THE HISTORICAL MUSEUM.

At the present time the seminary library of historical and political science begins with relics of the Stone Age and ends with the newspaper. At one end of the room are the first collections for an anthropological museum; at the other is a bulletin-board for university news. A good foundation of an historical museum was made last May by Mr. William Ellinger, formerly of Baltimore but now a resident of Arizona, who contributed a valuable collection of lacustrine relics from Neuchâtel—axes, spear-heads, knives, spindle-whorls, ornaments representing the stone and bronze ages of Switzerland. Numerous utensils and missile weapons belonging to the Stone Age of Virginia have since been given by the Rev. Dr. Randolph, formerly rector of Emanuel Church, Baltimore, now assistant bishop of Virginia. Memorials of the Stone Age of Maryland have been presented to the University by Colonel B. F. Taylor, of Kingsville, Baltimore County, near the site of "Joppa," where the seminary found its first stone axe some years ago. This latter relic of the Maryland aborigines and an unearthed brick, which identi-

fied the site of the first court-house in Baltimore county, were for a long time the only objects of archæological interest in the seminary library. They led to a jocose observation in one of the Baltimore city papers that the Johns Hopkins University Museum consisted of an Indian hatchet and a brickbat. This facetious remark, copied with pardonable malice by the press of Boston, was literally true. It characterized our museum about as cleverly as *The Nation* described the Johns Hopkins in 1876, when it was suggested that its trustees appeared to believe they could have a university in tents and a library in soap-boxes.

But the library and the University have grown somewhat since that day, and the museum also is destined to grow. Although beginning in small ways, student-interest in archæological and historical collections is manifestly increasing. After the exhibition of the Ellinger collection in the Bluntschli Library, three young men who had lived for many years in Rome began to enrich the museum of prehistoric relics with Etruscan pottery, vases from the ancient city of Veii, Roman lamps from the bottom of the Tiber, Christian lamps from the catacombs, a collection of coins with the image and superscription of the Cæsars from Augustus to Romulus Augustulus. Symbols of the entire history of the Roman Empire and of prehistoric Europe have thus been added to the Indian hatchet and the brickbat. Rome was not built in a day, nor yet is an anthropological museum; but the corner-stone is laid.

The special advantages are great for the upbuilding in Baltimore of a collection of artistic and literary memorials illustrating the historical progress of our race. There are valuable Egyptian¹ treasures in this city which, it is hoped, will some day be brought to the University. There are classic monuments worthy of preservation in some museum of science. The Church, too, in this truly catholic city, has many artistic and literary symbols which it is the duty of science and religion alike to place in their proper historic connection for the instruction of clergy and students.

It is of no small advantage in the upbuilding of such a museum for members of the Johns Hopkins University to have access to such a wonderful collection of early typographical art, illuminated missals, breviaries, and rare editions of the schoolmen, church fathers, and the classics, as the Stinnecke Library, collected by the late Bishop Whittingham, and now belonging to the diocese of Maryland. Great is the privilege now enjoyed of freely visiting such a rare private library as that of Mr. John W. McCoy—a library rich beyond present description in works of art-history, in collections of photographs, prints, and engravings of the old masters. Great also are the pleasure and profit of occasionally visiting such choice galleries of modern painting as those owned

¹ The Cohen collection of Egyptian art was added to the Historical Museum not long ago, and the Helbig collection of ancient art was brought from Rome in 1887.

by Mr. William T. Walters,¹ or the Garrett family. Inestimable is the benefit that a student may derive from the collections of the Peabody Institute, its new museum of plastic art, its costly plates and rare engravings, in short, its entire literary apparatus. These things all belong to the existing vantage-ground, to the municipal environment of Baltimore.

Not the least of the practical advantages in the development of the museum-idea at the Johns Hopkins University is the proximity of Baltimore to Washington. The collections of the Smithsonian Institution and of the National Museum are within easy reach. Institutions and men often acquire strength by contact. A university in the environment of a national government which expends over three million dollars annually for scientific purposes is well placed, even though it enjoys no great share in the distribution. The advantage lies in access to Government collections, such as the National Museum and the Congressional Library, and in associations with Government officials who are interested in university work. It is no small thing for university students to visit the National Museum under the instructive guidance of Maj. J. W. Powell, director of the Bureau of Ethnology and chief of the Geological Survey. It is also no small thing to have such a man address one day the Historical Seminary upon Indian Sociology and the next day the Baltimore Archæological Society upon the subject of Indian Art. These things are accomplished facts, and they represent stepping-stones for the up-building of the museum-idea in Baltimore.

It is not proposed to limit the Historical Museum to American Archæology, or to Prehistoric times, nor yet to Egyptian or any historic period, but to select a few things that are illustrative or typical of all times and of all phases of human progress. "*Denn das Einzelne ist auch ein Ausdruck des Ganzen, in dessen Zusammenhang es seine Stelle hat, und ist es um so mehr als es typischer ist.*"²

GEOGRAPHICAL BUREAU.

In addition to the Historical Museum (which in all probability will some day be removed from the Seminary room and placed upon a broader basis) there is now developing a so-called Geographical and Statistical Bureau. Here maps, charts, diagrams, &c., of physical and historical geography have been collected together and conveniently classified for the use of University students and instructors. The atlases and smaller portfolios are kept upon slides, arranged one above the other in a tier, but with open fronts, so that the titles of the folios can be easily seen.

¹ Appreciative articles on Mr. Walter's remarkable collections of Japanese art and modern paintings, which were exhibited to critics February 26, 1884, appeared in the New York Tribune February 27 and March 3, 10; in the Boston Weekly Advertiser February 29, and in all the Baltimore papers February 27, 1884.

² Droysen, *Historik*, 24.

Wall-maps are rolled up, ticketed, and suspended upon hooks, whence they can be quickly removed for temporary use in any class-room of the University. Great masses of loose maps, like those published by the United States Engineer Corps and by the Government Surveys, can be easily controlled by means of a large chart-table, fitted up with drawers of different sizes, each drawer furnished with an ingenious appliance (invented in one of the Government Departments at Washington) for raising a great mass of maps by means of an inserted slide which liberates the map beneath so that it can be drawn out without friction. In the geographical room are also collected the gazetteers, topographical dictionaries, histories of geography, treatises on comparative geography, Ritter's *Erdkunde*, Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, the writings of Peschel, Guyot, Reclus, Behm, &c.; the journals and bulletins of geographical societies; books of explorations, travels, voyages, &c. Here, also, are the reports of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey. Reports of the various State and railroad surveys, of all the early military expeditions and Government explorations, will gradually be added.

In the Johns Hopkins University physical and historical geography are made the basis of instruction in historical and political science. By the aid of the best maps, more especially of relief maps, attention is called, in a course of class lectures, to the physical structure and conformation of various historic lands; to the influence of coast-lines, harbors, river-courses, plain and mountain, soil and climate, upon a nation's character and history. Such object lessons concerning the physical structure of the earth's surface become an important means for teaching the outlines of universal history. For example, amid all the variation of political species and of the political geography of the Nile Valley the valley itself remains to-day the basis of the Egyptian question. Not only ancient but modern history of Egypt becomes more intelligible from a consideration of its physical geography. The remotest past can be connected with the immediate present by such a bridge. England's occupation of Egypt seems not so far removed from the Roman conquest when we consider a map of the Mediterranean basin and study its relation to the eternal Eastern question. The gradual discovery and political occupation of the world by the powers of christendom, the heirs of old Rome, can be shown by a series of maps whereon the widening areas of geographical knowledge are sharply outlined. Students should learn from maps of African exploration and of circum-polar observations that the old work of conquest is still going on. The relation of European states to Western Africa and to the opening of the river Congo is much the same in principle as the relation of Spain, Portugal, France, and England to the opening of the New World. For most students comparative history, like comparative geography, is almost an undiscovered country. The two sciences go hand in hand and can surely be fostered together.

In the geographical bureau are the results of an interesting study of the local geography of Baltimore, with a view to the preparation of a better physical and topographical map than any in existence. This study, begun in the interests of the University Field Club by Mr. A. L. Webster (formerly connected with the United States Geological Survey), will be for local geography what a study of town and parish records is for local institutions. The first step was to examine everything that was already known about Baltimore geography, to collect all the maps that were available, then to discover fresh facts by exploration and to apply modern scientific methods to a new graphical representation of the entire field. There was a certain valuable process of education for students in collecting new information for this map, and also in learning the practical arts of modern topography.

STATISTICAL BUREAU.

Adjoining the geographical room is a room devoted to statistics. Here are collected the census reports of the United States and of certain foreign countries and foreign cities. The publications of the Prussian Bureau of Statistics and of our own national bureau are fairly represented, together with the statistical documents published by the individual States and cities of the Union. Here is gathered whatever relates to the population and products of the earth; national resources; public domains; forests; crops; fisheries; railroads; canals; industries; international expositions. Here also are the various files of almanacs, calendars, statesmen's year-books, hand-books of statistics, &c. The possibilities of development for such a department are very great if proper attention is bestowed upon it. One has only to examine the catalogue of the Prussian Bureau of Statistics, with its 80,000 volumes, to realize what this science means.

THE HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

The question is often asked, In what respect is the Historical and Political Science Association different from the Seminary of Historical and Political Science? The answer is that the Seminary is, and always has been, the inner circle of university students; the Association is the Seminary in its associate capacity, which embraces an outer circle of honorary members. The Seminary is the active membership, the life-principle of the Association, which latter is maintained by natural selection and the survival of the fittest.

The origin of the Historical and Political Science Association dates back to the 19th of December, 1877. It was a natural development of the original Historical Seminary, which had been in existence since the opening of the University, and which was early spoken of as an historical association. The following extract from original records indicates the purpose of the new organization: "At the meeting of the

Historical Association [Seminary], held December 15 [1877], it was expressed as the sense of that body that there should be formed, under the auspices of the University, an organization which may take cognizance of other than historical questions and embrace among its members other than historical students."

The enlarged idea of the original Seminary was to form an association with students of political science, more especially with certain young lawyers in the city of Baltimore, who were engaged in the pursuit of this branch of learning. The scope of the Historical Association was to be widened into a kind of Staatswissenschaftlicher Verein, or Political Science Union like that in Heidelberg University, which organization had some influence upon the Baltimore Association. Students, professors, and a few professional men, interested in historical and political studies, met together one evening each month in Hopkins Hall for the discussion of papers or communications which were thought to be of more general interest than those ordinarily prepared in connection with class lectures or seminary work. The Association was regarded as a public meeting of the Seminary, with its invited guests.

The total membership originally comprised about a dozen graduate students and young instructors, some of whom were more especially devoted to the study of literature and philology. Among such associate members were Dr. Charles R. Lanman, now professor of Sanskrit in Harvard University; Dr. Josiah Royce, lecturer on philosophy in the same institution; Dr. Maurice Bloomfield, now associate professor of Sanskrit, Johns Hopkins University; Mr. A. Duncan Savage (at one time associated with Cesnola in the New York Metropolitan Museum); Mr. Allan Marquand, afterwards appointed professor of art history at Princeton College, and several others. The membership gradually increased to about forty through the election of certain young lawyers and other gentlemen of culture in the city of Baltimore. The attendance upon the monthly meetings of the Association sometimes ranged as high as fifty persons. The president of the University was for a time the acknowledged head of the Association and occasionally presides at its meetings. The original secretary was Dr. Henry Carter Adams, now professor of political economy in Cornell and Michigan Universities. The present director of the Seminary succeeded to the secretary's office in the Association December 19, 1878, and has committed it to members of the Seminary, who serve in rotation.

The character of the Association has changed with the character and size of the Seminary. Student members have graduated and many former associate members have given place to more active workers. The Seminary, or the inner circle, has gradually increased since 1876 from six or eight working members to twenty-five. No undergraduates, and no graduates who are not devoting their chief energies to Historical and Political Science in the Johns Hopkins University, are now permitted to join the Seminary. The associate members, still retained, or

chosen from time to time by this body, are naturally somewhat different from those formerly enrolled. The present custom is to regard as associates of the Seminary those whom it wishes to honor or those who have contributed to its published studies or public proceedings by an original paper or a reported address.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE ASSOCIATION, 1877-'79.

Partial lists of contributions to the proceedings of the Association, from December 19, 1877, to April 4, 1879, were printed in the annual reports of the Johns Hopkins University for 1878 (p. 56) and 1879 (p. 67); but a more complete list, taken from the original records, with the date of each communication, is given below. No mention is made of book notices and reports upon historical and political journals, &c., which latter exercises form very essential features of both Seminary and Association meetings:

The Village Communities of Ancient Germany and Mediæval England. An Introduction to the Study of New England Towns and the Institutions of Local Self-Government in America. By H. B. Adams. December 19, 1877.

Tramps. A paper afterwards read before a public convention, in Baltimore, of Maryland gentlemen, for the discussion of the tramp question. By H. C. Adams. December 19, 1877.

The Economy of Co-operation. An Essay afterwards read before the American Social Science Association at its meeting in Cincinnati. By H. C. Adams. January 11, 1879.

Review of Dr. Woolsey's Theories concerning the Educational Power of the State. By D. C. Gilman. January 11, 1878.

Greek Cities. Fragments from Greek writers, illustrating the historical village community and the Federal Constitution of the Commonwealth of Greece. By A. D. Savage. January 11, 1878.

The Tractatus Theologico-Politicus of Spinoza. A Philosophical Essay in which Spinoza was presented as the champion of religious liberty. By Josiah Royce. March 11, 1878.

The Punitive Power of the State. An inquiry into the grounds of legal punishment and an examination of the views advanced in Woolsey's Political Science. By William T. Brantly. March 11, 1878.

Bribes in Greece. By W. J. Berry. March 11, 1878.

Incidents of Historical Research in the State Department at Washington. By Austin Scott. March 11, 1878.

The Grand-Jury System. By Judge T. M. Cooley. March 11, 1878.

The Ordinance of 1787 for the Government of the Northwestern Territory. A paper showing the historic origin of this act of national legislation and the importance of the ordinance as an element of constitutional law. By Austin Scott. March 29, 1878.

The original Conception of the Town as an Institution. By W. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin. March 29, 1878.

The Influence of Alexander Hamilton in the Formation of the Constitution of the United States. By Joseph H. Tyler. March 29, 1878.

The Maryland State Papers. A communication showing the wealth of historical materials now lying unpublished at Annapolis and in the library of the Maryland Historical Society. By H. B. Adams. March 29, 1878.

The Public-School System. An inquiry as to its foundations. By D. C. Gilman. April 26, 1878.

- The School System of Connecticut, with Particular Reference to that of New Haven. By F. A. Walker, of Yale College. April 26, 1878.
- The School System of Baltimore. By Hon. Geo. Wm. Brown. April 26, 1878.
- Are Boards of Arbitration desirable? By George M. Sharp. April 26, 1878.
- The Stone Age. A Review of Recent Works on Prehistoric Archæology. By H. B. Adams. October 11, 1878.
- The Swiss Lake-Dwellings. By C. R. Lanman. October 11, 1878.
- The Depopulation of Central Greece in the Post-Classical Period. By E. G. Sihler. October 11, 1878.
- The National Archives. An explanation of the character and arrangement of the public documents and historical collections (letters, manuscripts, &c.) belonging to the United States. By Austin Scott. October 11, 1878.
- A Study of German Social Democracy. By A. Marquand. November 15, 1878.
- A Review of the Question, "Was Maryland a Roman Catholic Colony?" By H. B. Adams. November 15, 1878.
- Recent Complications in the School System of New Haven. By D. C. Gilman. November 15, 1878.
- Notes on Niebuhr's Life and Works. By E. G. Sihler. November 15, 1878.
- Lieber's "Reminiscences of Niebuhr." By D. C. Gilman. November 15, 1878.
- Primitive Aryan Mythology from the Standpoint of Indian Literature. By M. Bloomfield. December 19, 1878.
- Animistic Religion an Excrescence, not a Germ, of Vedic Religion. By C. R. Lanman. December 19, 1878.
- The Boundary Controversy between Maryland and Virginia. By E. Goodman. December 19, 1878.
- Letter from Dr. Wm. Hand Browne upon Catholic Toleration in Maryland. December 19, 1878.
- The first public Proposal of a Constitutional Convention for the United States. By Austin Scott. December 19, 1878.
- Methods of Historical Inquiry as Pursued at German Universities. A discussion of Seminaries and Seminary Libraries. By H. Von Holst. January 24, 1879.
- Maryland's Ratification of the Federal Constitution. By A. Scott. February 28, 1879.
- The Position of Socialism in the Historical Development of Political Economy. By H. C. Adams. February 28, 1879.
- Moral Insanity as a Cause of Crime. By C. W. Nichols. February 28, 1879.
- The Problem for Political Economy in the United States. By H. C. Adams. April 4, 1879.
- Attic Colonization. By E. G. Sihler. April 4, 1879.
- Methods of Historic Instruction as Pursued at Brown University. By Professor J. L. Diman. April 4, 1879.

All subsequent contributions to the Historical and Political Science Association are noted in the Johns Hopkins University Circulars, the publication of which began in December, 1879. Abstracts of the more important papers are there to be found, and mention is made of most of the minor communications. No other records of the association from October 23, 1879, to 1884, are preserved. A set of these abstracts has been arranged, with other printed matter, in a seminary scrap-book. With the year 1884 was instituted the office of a rotating secretary, serving for a single meeting. This institution was adopted from Professor Paul Frédéricq's seminary in Liège, and by him from Conrad's seminary in Halle. The advantages of the practice are the greater variety and interest resulting from the reports of rival secretaries, in addition

to valuable training for students themselves. The reports are written by the various secretaries upon uniform paper and are duly arranged in the scrap-book, together with the printed abstracts of the proceedings as revised by the director of the seminary for the University Circulars. The basis of the printed abstract is usually furnished by the contributor of the reported paper.

UNIVERSITY STUDIES.

In the latter part of the year 1882 began the publication of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The introductory number was written by Mr. Edward A. Freeman, the English historian, who that year had lectured to the students of Baltimore. The following list of published papers in the various series will best illustrate the nature and scope of the studies:

First Series.—Local Institutions.—1883.

- I. An Introduction to American Institutional History. By Edward A. Freeman, D. C. L., LL. D., Regius Professor of Modern History, University of Oxford. With an account of Mr. Freeman's Visit to Baltimore, by the Editor.
- II. The Germanic Origin of New England Towns. Read before the Harvard Historical Society, May 9, 1881. By H. B. Adams, Ph. D. (Heidelberg), 1876. With Notes on Co-operation in University Work.
- III. Local Government in Illinois. First published in the Fortnightly Review. By Albert Shaw, A. B. (Iowa College), 1879.—Local Government in Pennsylvania. Read before the Pennsylvania Historical Society, May 1, 1882. By E. R. L. Gould, A. B. (Victoria University, Canada), 1882.
- IV. Saxon Tithingmen in America. Read before the American Antiquarian Society, October 21, 1881. By H. B. Adams.
- V. Local Government in Michigan and the Northwest. Read before the Social Science Association at Saratoga, September 7, 1882. By E. W. Bemis, A. B. (Amherst College), 1880.
- VI. Parish Institutions of Maryland. By Edward Ingle, A. B. (Johns Hopkins University), 1882.
- VII. Old Maryland Manors. By John Johnson, A. B. (Johns Hopkins University), 1881.
- VIII. Norman Constables in America. Read before the New England Historic Genealogical Society, February 1, 1882. By H. B. Adams.
- IX-X. Village Communities of Cape Ann and Salem. From the Historical Collections of the Essex Institute. By H. B. Adams.
- XI. The Genesis of a New England State (Connecticut). By Alexander Johnston, A. M. (Rutgers College), 1870; Professor of Political Economy and Jurisprudence at Princeton College.
- XII. Local Government and Free Schools in South Carolina. Read before the Historical Society of South Carolina, December 15, 1882. By B. J. Ramage, A. B.

Second Series.—Institutions and Economics.—1884.

- I, II. Methods of Historical Study. By Herbert B. Adams, Ph. D. (Heidelberg) January and February, 1884; pp. 137.
- III. The Past and the Present of Political Economy. Richard T. Ely, Ph. D. (Heidelberg). March, 1884; pp. 64.

- IV. Samuel Adams, the Man of the Town Meeting. By James K. Hosmer, A. M. (Harvard); Professor of English and German Literature, Washington University, St. Louis. April, 1884; pp. 60.
- V, VI. Taxation in the United States. By Henry Carter Adams, Ph. D. (J. H. U.); Professor of Political Economy, University of Michigan. May and June, 1884; pp. 79.
- VII. Institutional Beginnings in a Western State. By Jesse Macy, A. B. (Iowa College); Professor of Historical and Political Science, Iowa College. July, 1884; pp. 38.
- VIII, IX. Indian Money as a Factor in New England Civilization. By William B. Weeden, A. M. (Brown University). August and September, 1884; pp. 51.
- X. Town and County Government in the English Colonies of North America. By Edward Channing, Ph. D. (Harvard); Instructor in History, Harvard University. October, 1884; pp. 57.
- XI. Rudimentary Society among Boys. By John Johnson, A. B. (J. H. U.); Instructor in History and English, McDonogh Institute, Baltimore County, Md. November, 1884; pp. 56.
- XII. Land Laws of Mining Districts. By Charles Howard Shinn, A. B. (J. H. U.); Editor of the Overland Monthly. December, 1884; pp. 69.

Third Series.—Maryland, Virginia, and Washington.—1885.

- I. Maryland's Influence upon Land Cessions to the United States. With minor papers on George Washington's Interest in Western Lands, the Potomac Company, and a National University. By Herbert B. Adams, Ph. D. (Heidelberg). January, 1885. 102 pp.
- II, III. Virginia Local Institutions—The Land System; Hundred; Parish; County; Town. By Edward Ingle, A. B. (J. H. U.). February and March, 1885. 127 pp.
- IV. Recent American Socialism. By Richard T. Ely, Ph. D. (Heidelberg); Associate in Political Economy (J. H. U.). April, 1885. 74 pp.
- V, VI, VII. Maryland Local Institutions—The Land System; Hundred; County; Town. By Lewis W. Wilhelm, Ph. D. (J. H. U.); Fellow by Courtesy (J. H. U.). May, June, and July, 1885. 130 pp.
- VIII. The Influence of the Proprietors in founding the State of New Jersey. By Austin Scott, Ph. D. (Leipsic); formerly Associate and Lecturer (J. H. U.); Professor of History, Political Economy, and Constitutional Law, Rutgers College. August, 1885. 26 pp.
- IX, X. American Constitutions—The Relations of the Three Departments as Adjusted by a Century. By Horace Davis, A. B. (Harvard). San Francisco, California. September and October, 1885. 70 pp.
- XI, XII. The City of Washington. By John Addison Porter, A. B. (Yale). November and December, 1885. 56 pp.

Fourth Series.—Municipal Government and Land Tenure.—1886.

- I. Dutch Village Communities on the Hudson River. By Irving Elting, A. B. (Harvard). January, 1886. 68 pp.
- II, III. Town Government in Rhode Island. By William E. Foster, A. M. (Brown University).—The Narragansett Planters. By Edward Channing, Ph. D. and Instructor in History, Harvard University. February and March, 1886. 60 pp.
- IV. Pennsylvania Boroughs. By William P. Holcomb, Ph. D. (J. H. U.); Professor of History and Political Science, Swarthmore College. April, 1886. 51. pp.
- V. Introduction to the Constitutional and Political History of the Individual States. By J. F. Jameson, Ph. D. and Associate in History (J. H. U.). May, 1886. 29 pp.

- VI. The Puritan Colony at Annapolis, Maryland. By Daniel R. Randall, A. B. (St. John's College). June, 1886. 47 pp.
- VII, VIII, IX. History of the Land Question in the United States. By Shosuke Sato, B. S. (Sapporo); Ph. D. and Fellow by Courtesy (J. H. U.). July-September, 1886. 181 pp.
- X. The Town and City Government of New Haven. By Charles H. Levermore, Ph. D. (J. H. U.); Instructor in History, University of California. October, 1886. 103 pp.
- XI, XII. The Land System of the New England Colonies. By Melville Egleston, A. M. (Williams College). November and December, 1886.

Fifth Series.—Municipal Government and Institutions.—1887.

- I, II. City Government of Philadelphia. By Edward P. Allinson, A. M. (Haverford), and Boies Penrose, A. B. (Harvard). January and February, 1887. 72 pp.
- III. City Government of Boston. By James M. Bugbee. March, 1887. 60 pp.
- IV. City Government of St. Louis. By Marshall S. Snow, A. M. (Harvard); Professor of History, Washington University. April, 1887. 40 pp.
- V, VI. Local Government in Canada. By John George Bourinot, Clerk of the House of Commons of Canada. May and June, 1887. 73 pp.
- VII. The influence of the War of 1812 upon the Consolidation of the American Union. By Nicholas Murray Butler, Ph. D. and Tutor in Columbia College. July, 1887. 30 pp.
- VIII. Notes on the Literature of Charities. By Herbert B. Adams. August, 1887.
- IX. Predictions of Hamilton and De Tocqueville. By James Bryce. September, 1887.
- City Government of Baltimore. By John C. Rose, B. L. (University of Maryland, School of Law).
- City Government of Chicago. By F. H. Hodder, Ph. M. (University of Michigan); Instructor in History, Cornell University.
- City Government of San Francisco. By Bernard Moses, Ph. D.; Professor of History and Politics, University of California.
- City Government of New Orleans. By Hon. W. W. Howe.
- City Government of New York. By Simon Sterne and J. F. Jameson, Ph. D.; Associate in History (J. H. U.).

The completed series have been bound into volumes bearing the following special titles:

- Volume I.—Local Institutions. 479 pp.
- Volume II.—Institutions and Economics. 629 pp.
- Volume III.—Maryland, Virginia, and Washington. 595 pp.
- Volume IV.—Municipal Government and Land Tenure. 610 pp.

EXTRA VOLUMES OF STUDIES.

The monthly monographs, which are pamphlets averaging 50 pages in length, have proved inadequate to supply a channel of publication for more extended works undertaken in connection with the historical department. Accordingly a series of extra volumes has been instituted, ranging from 200 to 500 pages. In this extra-volume series have appeared the following contributions to historical and political science:

- Extra Volume I.—The Republic of New Heaven: A History of Municipal Evolution. By Charles H. Levermore, Ph. D., Baltimore.
- Extra Volume II.—Philadelphia, 1681-1887: A History of Municipal Development. By Edward P. Allinson, A. M. (Haverford), and Boies Penrose, A. B. (Harvard).
- Extra Volume III.—Baltimore and the Nineteenth of April, 1861. By George William Brown, Chief Judge of the Supreme Bench of Baltimore and Mayor of the City in 1861.

II.

UNDERGRADUATE DEPARTMENT.

Experience at the Johns Hopkins University has shown the advantage of the co-operative method for undergraduate classes with a short period of time at their command, who nevertheless desire to cover a goodly stretch of historical territory. The method, in its practical operation, consists of a division of labor in a class guided by an instructor who undertakes to direct special work into co-operative channels. The students, while to some extent upon the common ground of text-books or prescribed authors, and while taking notes upon class lectures of a special character, carry on investigations in close connection with the general course. Written reports are submitted, first to the instructor, and are then presented, either wholly or in part, to the class, who take notes and are examined upon these co-operative studies in the same way as on material presented by the teacher.

STUDENT LECTURES.

An interesting and valuable practice has gradually grown up among undergraduate students of historical and political science at the Johns Hopkins University, namely, that of students lecturing to their own class upon subjects connected with the course. The practice originated several years ago among undergraduate students of history and international law; it was the natural outgrowth of the topical method of study. It is a practice considerably different from that of reading formal essays, which often prove very burdensome to a class of intelligent pupils. The idea of oral reports with the aid of a brief or of a few notes, or, best of all, of an analysis written upon the blackboard, led the way to the preparation of a regular course of co-operative lectures by members of a class working conjointly with the instructor. Greater dignity was given to the efforts of students by asking them in turn to come to the front, to the map or blackboard. For the time being the student became the teacher. Pretensions were seldom made to original investigations in preparing for such a class lecture. The understanding was that students should collect the most authoritative information upon a given subject and present it to his fellows in an instructive way. This naturally implied the selection of the best points of view and the omission of all irrelevant matter. The success of the lecturer turned, not upon his occupying the time by reading an encyclopædic article, but upon his kindling the interest of his classmates and keeping their attention to the end.

PREHISTORIC TIMES.

An experiment was tried with a class of undergraduates (Freshmen) who were just beginning their study of history by following a course of introductory lectures on the Origin of Civilization. In connection

with the instructor's course, which concerned more especially the Stone Age and the Development of Early Society, such topics as the following were assigned to individuals for study and report: Clubs and Batons; Stone Knives; Axes; Spears and Sceptres; Origin of Fire; Origin of Clothes; the Hunting and Fishing Stages of Society; the Plough and the Beginnings of Agriculture; Bread and the Cultivation of Cereals; Evolution of the House; Boats and their Improvement; Barter; the Art of Counting; Origin of the Alphabet; Picture-Writing; Pottery, &c. The youths appointed to these tasks were referred to such authorities as Tylor, Lubbock, Lyell, Wilson, Evans, Geikie, Peschel, Keary, Abbot, Short, Jones, *et al.*, whose writings were placed upon a reservation in the library. The appointees quickly found their way into the pith of these books, or such parts of them as concerned the subject in hand. The reports made to the class in the shape of off-hand lectures were really of surprising interest to the audience. So well did the experiment succeed that a few of these Freshmen were persuaded to give brief addresses to the Matriculate Society (embracing all undergraduate students who are candidates for the degree of A. B.) upon a series of connected topics pertaining to the Stone Age, namely, the Social Condition of Primitive Man, his Moral and Religious Condition, his Knowledge of the Useful Arts, Evidence as to the Antiquity of Man, &c. These addresses partook of the nature of a discussion of Primitive Man from special points of view. The remarks made were by no means essays committed to memory, but rather the easy utterance of minds well stored with facts. The naturalness of the efforts and the absence of all attempts at Sophomoric eloquence were quite noteworthy.

As further illustrations of the kind of subjects investigated by undergraduate students at the Johns Hopkins University, who were working in a co-operative way with their instructors, the following select lists may suffice. It should be understood that in each class, namely, in Church History, the Italian Renaissance, the German Reformation, in the History of France and England during the Middle Ages, and in the History of Political Economy, the teacher gave systematic instruction by lectures or otherwise, and that the investigations carried on by students had direct connection with the class-course. The following lists are old, but they will serve to illustrate an idea.

CHURCH HISTORY.

Influence of Jewish Ceremonial upon the Christian Church; Influence of Greek Philosophy upon Christian Thought; Influence of Roman Institutions upon the Church; the Apostolic Fathers; the Greek Apologists; the Latin Apologists; Saint Ambrose; Chrysostom; Saint Jerome and the Vulgate; Saint Augustine and the City of God; Nestorianism; the Clergy and the Laity; the Office of Patriarch; Metropolitan Centres of Church Life; Origin of the Papacy; Artistic Rep-

resentations of the Growth of the Ecclesiastical Constitution; Leo the Great; Extension of Church Authority into England; Conversion of Germany; Relation of Charles the Great to the Papacy; Otto the Great; International Position of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation; Constitution of the Empire; Territorial Claims of the Empire; Gregory VII and the Countess Mathilda of Tuscany; the Normans in Sicily; Frederick Barbarossa and his Relations with Italy; Arnold of Brescia; Points of Conflict between the Empire and Papacy; Fall of the Hohenstaufen Emperors; the Great Councils of the Fifteenth Century.

THE ITALIAN RENAISSANCE.

Greece in the Middle Ages; Revival of Greek Ideas in Italy; Poggio's Study of Roman Antiquities and his Discovery of Classic Manuscripts; Dante's *De Monarchia*; Petrarch's Relation to the Revival of Learning; Boccaccio's Influence upon Literature; Lorenzo Valla and Humanism in Rome; the Platonic Academy and Humanism in Florence; the Revival of Roman Law; Mediæval Universities; Natural Science in the Middle Ages; Recent Vindications of Lucretia Borgia; the Political Merits of Cæsar Borgia; Modern Views of Machiavelli; Savonarola; Lorenzô di Medici; Alexander VI; Julius II; Leo X; the Building of St. Peter's.

THE GERMAN REFORMATION.

The German Humanists, Reuchlin and Melanchthon; Ulrich von Hutten and Franz von Sickingen; Erasmus and his Praise of Folly; the English Humanists, Grocyn, Linacre, and John Colet; More's *Utopia*; English and German Translations of the Bible; the Ideas of Wyclif and how they came to Bohemia; John Huss; the Relation of Peasant Revolts to the German Reformation; Character of Luther as revealed in his Table Talk; Roman Catholic Estimates of Luther; Character of Charles V; Character of the German Princes; Political Elements in the German Reformation; Protestantism in Italy; Catholic Reformation; Ignatius Loyola; the Council of Trent; the Peace of Augsburg.

FRENCH AND ENGLISH HISTORY—MEDIÆVAL PERIOD.

Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul; Life in Gaul in the Fifth Century; Monastic Life in Merovingian Gaul; the Northmen; Cnut and Harold Haardrada; Lanfranc and Anselm; the Bayeux Tapestry; Domesday; Results of the Crusades; Origin of Feudalism; Mediæval Cathedrals; Scriptoria and Chronicles; Conquest of Wales; the Coming of the Friars into England; Law-Courts, *circa* 1200, in England; the Albigenses and the Crusade against them; Military and Religious Orders; Montfort in Gascony; London in the Fourteenth Century; Robert Bruce; Life on the Roads in England in the Fourteenth Century; the Popes at Avignon; Froissart; Wyclif's Bible; the Paston Letters; Par-

liamentary Antiquities in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries; Comparison of the Characters of Louis XI, Henry VII, and Ferdinand of Aragon; the States General of 1468 and 1484; the Relations of France and Scotland in the Fifteenth Century.

INTERNATIONAL LAW AND POLITICS.

Another phase of co-operative student-lectures at the Johns Hopkins University is that represented by an undergraduate class pursuing a systematic course of instruction upon the Historical Development of International Law. The instructor considers such topics as the Intertribal and Intermunicipal Relations of the Orient (Evolution of the Family, Tribe, Village, and City; Wars, Forays, Women Capture, Slave Trade, and Commerce); the Intermunicipal Life of the Greeks (Federation of Demes and Cities, Hegemony, Insopolity, Municipal Hospitality, Oracles, Games, Festivals, Arbitration, Leagues, Relations with Persia and Rome); Rome, the *civitas mundi* (imperial tendency of Roman Institutions, Roman Law, Jus Gentium, Fetiales, Treaties, Roman Municipia, Italian Republics); International Position of the Mediæval Church (Municipal Origin of Church Government, Papal Rome, Church and State, Church Authority, Interdicts, Councils); Origin and Tendencies of Modern International Law (Italian Beginnings, Commercial Law of Italian Republics, Intermunicipal Relations, Invasions of Italy, Rise of the State System, Venetian Ambassadors, Thirty Years' War, Hugo Grotius, Puffendorf, Vattel, Wheaton, Lieber, Bluntschli). In connection with this historical survey of the growth of internationality a series of historical and institutional lectures is usually given by members of the class; and, in connection with the exposition of Bluntschli's code of the Modern International Law of Civilized States, a similar course of student-lectures is sometimes given on Modern International Politics. The following select titles will indicate the character and scope of the two courses. The subjects vary in different years:

I. *Historical Course*.—Carthaginian Commerce; Carthaginian Treaties; Grecian Economics; Grecian City Government; the Aristocratic Character of Roman Institutions; the Roman Municipal System; International Influence of Roman Ethics; International Influence of the Church; International Influence of Chivalry and of the Crusades; Theories of Church and State; Phases of City Government in Florence; the City Government of German Free Cities and the Rhenish League; the Hanseatic League; the Government of the Swiss Cantons; the Federation of Switzerland; the Estates of Holland and their Federal Relations.

II. *Political Course*.—England in Egypt; the International Association for the control of African Trade and the River Congo; France in the Tonquin; the Opening of China; Character of Chinese Diplomacy; the Opening and Recent Progress of Japan; Relations between

Germany and the Vatican; Papal Policy in America; Who should control the Panama Canal if there were one; International Congresses; the Question of an International Tribunal; the Diplomacy of the United States *versus* the Indians; the Relation of Political Ethics to International Law; the Theory of a World State; Freedom of the Sea and of Great Rivers; the American Fisheries; the Monroe Doctrine in its relation to South American Republics; Review of the present International Relations of the United States.

III.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

HISTORY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

The following subjects were given out by the writer in 1879 to individual members of a class in the History of Political Economy for private study. As far as possible original sources of information, as well as the current literature on these subjects, were examined by the respective appointees. After such examination the subjects were introduced for class consideration in the form of an oral report. The instructor usually questioned the appointee on matters connected with his report and then discussed with the class the most interesting and suggestive points. A bibliography of the various subjects was prepared by the respective appointees, under supervision of the instructor, who worked with his students in classifying the resources of the various Baltimore libraries with reference to the topics in hand. These bibliographies were printed for class use and served a valuable purpose, although they were far from being complete. Good references were always sought after rather than mere lists of titles. In this connection it may be remarked that one of the best exercises for the student investigator is to prepare as good a bibliography of his subject as the library facilities of his environment can afford. He should examine each book, monograph, or magazine article sufficiently to enable him to tell his classmates what the same represents. The subjects of research are here enumerated with their bibliographies, as originally printed, together with the names of the persons who prepared them. No attempt has been made to supplement these lists, which could easily be done by reference to the foot-notes in Dr. Ely's authoritative work on "French and German Socialism," or by reference to the new edition of Poole's index and other bibliographical aids. These lists represent a certain historic phase (1879) of economic work with undergraduates and were prepared in Baltimore libraries. The letters H and P refer respectively to the Johns Hopkins University and Peabody libraries. Other authorities were found in private collections. The author would not recommend reliance upon these antiquated lists. Each student and each instructor should blaze his own path through his own library collections. These bibliographies are printed merely for illustrative purposes.

1. The Mercantile System. H. J. BOWDOIN.

LITERATURE.—*Mun*, England's treasure by foreign trade. H. P. Other English Mercantilists: *Child*. P. *Sir W. Temple*. H. P. *Steuart*. H. P. *Locke*. P.—*Roscher*, Political Economy. H. *Roscher*, Gesch. d. engl. volkswirtschafts-lehre im 16 u. 17. jahrh. *Mill*, Principles of Polit. Econ. H. *McCulloch*, Principles of Political Economy. H. P. *Blanqui*, II, ch. XXVII. H. Dict. de l'Econ. Politique, "Colbert." H.

2. The System of the Physiocrats. A. F. JAMIESON.

LITERATURE.—*Quesnay*, Tableau Economique, 1758. *Turgot*, Réflexions sur la formation et la distrib. des richesses, 1766-'78. *Mirabeau*, the Elder, L'ami des hommes, 1755-'60. *Mauvillon*, La Monarchie Prussienne. *Encyclopédie*, 1756-'57. *Adam Smith*, Wealth of Nations (Roger's edition). H. *M. Kaufman*, Socialism. Bk. II, ch. II. H. P. *Blanqui*, Vol. II. H. Dict. de l'Econ. Pol., "Physiocrats." H.

3. Adam Smith and the fundamental doctrines of English Economy. STEWART LINTHICUM.

LITERATURE.—*Adam Smith*, Wealth of Nations. H. P. *Blanqui*, Vol. II, p. 106. H. P. *Shadwell*, System of Political Economy. H. *Thompson*, Social Science and National Economy. H. *McCulloch*, Principles of Political Economy. H. P. Le centenaire d'Adam Smith, Journal des Econ., July, 1876, v. 43. H. Dict. de l'Econ. Pol., "Smith." H. *Bagehot*, Fortnightly Rev., July, 1876, "Adam Smith." *Nasse*, Das hundertjährige jubiläum der Schrift v. Adam Smith über den reichthum der nationen, Preus. Jahrbücher, Oct. 1876.

4. St. Simon and his School. LEE SALE.

LITERATURE.—Works of *St. Simon*, especially, (1) Le nouveau Christianisme, (2) Catéchisme des Industriels. H. *Lerminier*, Lettres Philosophiques VII, Des questions soulevées par le Saint-Simonisme, Revue des Deux Mondes, 1832. *Reybaud*, Socialistes Modernes, i, H., Les Saint-Simoniens, Rev. des Deux Mondes, 1836. *Janet*, Saint Simon, le fondateur du socialisme, Rev. des Deux Mondes, Apr. 15, 1876. *Janet*, L'école Saint Simonienne, Bazard et Enfantin, Rev. des Deux Mondes, Oct. 1, 1876. *Hillebrand*, Die anfänge des socialismus in Frankreich, 1830-'48, Deutsche Rundschau, Dec. 1878. H. *Blanqui*, Vol. II, ch. XLIII. H. *Huber*, Socialismus u. Kommunismus, Kleine Schriften or Bluntschli's Staatswörterbuch. H. North Brit. Rev. 1848, No. 9. Westm. Rev. Apr. 1832. Dict. de l'Econ. Pol. H.

5. Fourier's doctrines and his influence upon American Socialism. E. C. RICHARDSON.

LITERATURE.—*Fourier*, Œuvres complètes. P. *Blanqui*, Vol. II, p. 258. H. *J. S. Mill*, Principles of Political Economy, Vol. I, pp. 274-277. H. *M. Kaufman*, Socialism, pp. 118-128. P. H. *J. H. Noyes*, History of American Socialisms, P. *Parke Godwin*, A popular view of the doctrines of Fourier, "Fourier," Fortnightly Rev. Vol. XII, Essays 1, 2. P. Fourierism, Christian Examiner, Vol. XXXVII, p. 57. P. *Hawthorne*, The Blithedale Romance. "Fourier," North Amer. Rev., Apr. 1879. *Hillebrand*, Anfänge des Socialismus in Frankreich, 1830-'48. Deutsche Rundschau, Dec., 1878.

6. Communism in the United States. W. R. STRICKLEN.

LITERATURE.—*Nordhoff*, Communistic Societies in the U. S. H. Historische beschreibung der wahren inspirationsgemeinschaft. The Circular (Oneida, 1854-'74). The Perfectionist (New Haven, 1834). Hand-book of the Oneida Community (N. Y., 1871). *Thomas Brown*, An account of the people called "Shakers." *Williams*, The Harmony Society at Economy, Pa. *James*, Communism in America [John A. Porter Prize Essay—Yale Law School]. Henry Holt & Co., 1879. H.

7. Mediæval Craft Guilds and Modern Trades Unions. J. H. LOWE.

LITERATURE.—*Clode*, Memorial of the guild of the merchant tailors in the city of London. P. *Toulmin Smith*, English Guilds (Early Engl. Text Soc. No. 40). H. *Comte de Paris*, Trades Unions in England. *Endemann*, Die entwicklung der handels-gesellschaften. P. *Clifford*, Agricultural look-out. P. *Thornton*, On labor, Bk. II, ch. 4, and Bk. III, chs. 1-5. P. *Howell*, Conflicts of labor and capital. H. *Fortnightly Rev.*, Vol. VI (N. S.), Old guilds and new friendly societies, by *Ludlow*. *Quart. Rev.* Vol. CXXIII. Trades Unions. *Blackwood Mag.*, Vols. XXXV, XLIII. *North Amer. Rev.*, Vol. CV. *Howell*, *Contem. Rev.*, Oct. 1877. *Chr. Meyer*, Mittelalterliches u. modernes Bürgerthum, *Preus. Jahrbücher*, June, 1877. *Chr. Meyer*, Zur gesch. d. deutschen arbeiterstandes, *Preus. Jahrbücher*, Jan. 1879, p. 26. *Huber-Liebenau*, Das deutsche zunftwesen im mittelalter, *Samml. wis. Vorträge*, 13 serie, heft. 312. *Chr. Meyer*, Die anfänge der deutschen gewerbeverfassung, *Preus. Jahrbücher*, July, 1878. *Stahl*, Das deutsche handwerk u. die bedeutung der arbeiter-association in vergangenheit und gegenwart. *Brentano*, Hist. of Guilds. H. *Schoenberg*, zur wirthsch. bedeutung des deutschen zunftwesens. *Trades Unions*, *Jour. des Econ.*, Oct., 1878.

8. Robert Owen and English Workingmen's Associations. K. J. HAMMOND.

LITERATURE.—Life of *Robert Owen*, Phila., 1866. P. Life of *Robert Owen*, by himself, Lond., 1857. Vol. I. P. A supplementary appendix to Vol. I, Lond., 1858. P. The Pamphleteer, Vol. X. *Robert Owen*, New view of society, Nos. 1, 2. *Robert Owen*, Report to commis. of assoc. for relief of manuf. and laboring poor. P. *Holyoake*, Co-operation in England. P. *Encyclop. Britan.*, "Co-operation." H.

9. Schulze-Delitzch and Workingmen's Associations in Germany for Self-help. C. E. GRAMMER.

LITERATURE.—11th report of trades union commissioners, pp. 165-178. By *R. D. Morier*. Co-operative wholesale society report, 1873, pp. 115-117; 1872, p. 101. The Co-operator, Nos. 200, 203. Works of *Schulze-Delitzch* (F. A. Herbig, Berlin). *Lassalle*, M. Bastiat u. Schulze-Delitzch. *Hughes*, Working classes in Europe (Atlas-Essays). H. *Journal des Economistes*, Vol. I, p. 7. H. *Samuelson*, The German workingman. H. *Schulze-Delitzch*, Sociale rechte und pflichten, *Sammlung wissenschaftl. Vorträge*, Vol. I. P. *Meyer's Konversations Lexicon*, "Schulze-Delitzch" und "Genossenschaften." H.

10. Lassalle and German Social Democracy. G. F. GEPHART.

LITERATURE.—*Lassalle's werke*. *Edinb. Rev.*, July, 1878. *Nineteenth Century*, Aug. and Oct. 1878; Feb. 1879. *Fortnightly Rev.*, Feb. and March, 1879. *North Amer. Rev.*, April, 1879. *Contemporary Rev.*, May, 1877. *Eclectic Mag.*, Jan. 1879. *Kaufman*, Socialism. *Deutsche Rundschau*, Feb. and March, 1878. *Zeit und Streit Fragen*, heft 108. *Innocenz Simplex*, Glaube des socialismus. *Schuster*, Social Demokratie. *Schaeffle*, Socialismus und kapitalismus. Briefe von Ferdinand Lassalle an Carl Rodbertus Jagetzow. "Lassalle," *Revue des deux mondes*, Dec. 15, 1876.

11. Karl Marx, the Internationalists, and the Commune of Paris. T. A. BERRY.

LITERATURE.—*K. Marx*, Das Kapital; Kritik der polit. oekonomie. H. Annual reports of the International, published in London. *Roscher*, Political Economy—See "Marx." See also *Gesch. der national oekonomik*. *E. E. Fribourg*, L'association internationale des travailleurs. P. *Villetard*, Histoire de l'internationale. P. (Translated by S. M. Day. New Haven, 1874) H. Histoire de l'internationale, par un Bourgeois Républicain. P. *Oscar Testut*, L'Internationale. P. *Oscar Testut*, L'Internationale et le Jacobinisme, au ban de l'Europe. P. *Jaeger*, Der moderne socialismus u.

Karl Marx. H. *Jaeger*, Geschichte der socialen bewegung u. des socialismus in Frankreich. *Woolsey*, Political Science, Vol. I, p. 319. H. *Revue Contemporaine*, Vol. V, 1866, Une forme nouvelle du socialisme. P. *Journal des Economistes*, Apr. 1875, Coup d'œil historique sur l'Internationale. H. *Rev. des Deux Mondes*, Sept. 1876, pp. 133-149, Le Socialisme contemporaine en Allemagne. Fort. *Rev.* 1870, The international workingmen's association. North Amer. *Rev.*, Apr., 1872, International Association. *Pierotti*, Décrets et rapports officiels de la commune de Paris. *Nation*, Aug. 8, 15, 22, 1878, Socialism in Germany. *Rundschau*, Mar. 1879, p. 481.

12. Distinction between Nihilists, Communists, and Socialists. W. J. THOMAS.

LITERATURE.—*Deutsche Rundschau*, Aug. 1878, Nihilismus in Russland. *Nineteenth Century*, May, 1877, June, 1878, Russian revolutionary literature; the social origin of Pessimism and Nihilism in Germany. *Fortnightly Rev.*, Nov. 1, 1878, Socialism in Germany and the U. S. *North British Rev.*, Vol. II, p. 406, Socialism. *Deutsche Rundschau*, Feb. 1878, Deutschland und der Socialismus. *Rev. des Deux Mondes*, 1878-9, (A series of articles on German Socialism by *Laveleye*). *Nuova Antologia*, July, 1878, Il Nihilismo. *Rev. des Deux Mondes*, 1876-'77 (series), L'empire des Tsars et les Russes.

13. The Historical School, Socialists of the Chair, and the efforts of German professors to meet the just demands of Socialism. E. GOODMAN.

LITERATURE.—*Knies*, Die politische oekonomie vom standpunkte der geschichtlichen methode. H. *Roscher*, Principles of Political economy. H. *Hildebrand*, Die national oekonomie der gegenwart und zukunft. *Hermann*, Staatswirthschaftliche untersuchungen. *Gneist*, Das reichsgesetz gegen die bestrebungen der socialdemokratie staatsrechtlich erörtert. *Holtzendorf*, Die Principien der Politik. *Worthman*, H. v. Treitschke und die Kathedersocialisten. (Reprinted in *Jahrbücher für Nat. oek.*, 16 Jahrgang, 1 Band, 1 Heft.) H. *E. de Laveleye*, The new tendencies of Political Economy. (In *Banker's Magazine*, Feb. 8, 1878.) *Schaeffle*, Die quintessenz des socialismus. *Block*, Die quintessenz des Kathedersocialismus, *Journal des Economistes*, Nov. 1878. *Zeit und Streit Fragen*, No. 52, *Laspeyres*, Der Kathedersocialismus. *Bamberger*, Die culturgeschichtliche bedeutung des socialistengesetzes. *Schcenberg*, Die ziele und bestrebungen der socialdemokratie. *Wagner*, Rede über die sociale frage. *Leslie*, The philosophical method of political economy, *Hermathena*, No. 4, P., and in his essays in *Moral and Political Philosophy*, H.; *Political Economy and Sociology*, *Fortnightly Rev.* Jan., 1879. P. H. *Ingram*, Economic science and statistics, *Journal of statistical Soc.*, Dec., 1878. H. P. *Bagehot*, *Fortnightly Rev.*, Feb., 1876. *Lowe*, Recent attacks on Political Economy, *Nineteenth Century*, Nov., 1878. *Held*, Socialismus, *Jahrb. für Gesetzgebung*, 1 Bd., 1 Heft, 1877. H.

14. Strikes. JESSE HAY.

LITERATURE.—*Walker*, The wages question. H. *Quart. Rev.*, Vol. CVI, No. 212, and Vol. CXXXII, No. 268. *Brit. Quart. Rev.*, Vol. LVI, No. 115. *North Amer. Rev.*, Vol. CXVI, No. 238; Vol. CV, No. 216, No. 258. *Edinb. Rev.*, Vol. LIX, No. 120; and Vol. LXVII, No. 135. *Presbyter. Quart. and Princeton Rev.*, Oct., 1877. *Black. Mag.*, Vol. LXXIX, No. 483. *Western Rev.*, Vol. XVIII, No. 1; Vol. XX, No. 2. *Goldwin Smith*, Labor war in the U. S. *Contem. Rev.*, Sept., 1877. *Fried. Kapp*, Der jüngste aufstand der Eisenbahnarbeiter in den vereinigten staaten, *Preuss. Jahrb.*, Oct., 1877. *Rich. Vaux*, Annual Report of the Secretary of Internal Affairs of the Com. of Penn Industrial Statistics, Part III, Vol. V, 1876-'77, "Strikes."

15. An historical survey of the distinctive doctrines of the leading English Economists since Adam Smith. N. PALMER.

LITERATURE.—*McCulloch*, The literature of Political Economy. P. *Blanqui*, *Economie politique*. H. *Kautz*, Die geschichtliche entwicklung der national-oekonomik und ihrer literatur. *Jevons*, The future of Polit. Econ., Fort. Rev., Nov. 1, 1876.

16. The progress of economic science in the United States. A. C. PALMER.

LITERATURE.—Economic Science in America. North American Rev., 1876. *Kautz*, Die geschichtliche entwicklung der national oekonomik.

A similar co-operative course in the History of Political Economy was undertaken and is now conducted by Dr. R. T. Ely, of the Johns Hopkins University. A product of this latter course is a volume on "French and German Socialism in Modern Times" (Harper & Brothers, 1883). The book "is based on lectures delivered in Baltimore before the students of the Johns Hopkins University and in Ithaca before the students of Cornell University." Although strictly Dr. Ely's own work and not the work of his students, the book was written in an atmosphere of student co-operation and student inquiry in the same field.

This work is now advancing along the lines of Christian Socialism and the American Labor Movement.¹ For the former topic Dr. Ely has obtained fresh materials from Thomas Hughes and other English sources. For the second topic the socialistic and communistic newspapers published in this country and the labor organizations that exist in all of our large cities² are fountain-heads of information. On one occasion Dr. Ely took representatives of his class to hear an address given to Baltimore workingmen by Most, the German communist, and was sharply criticised by one of the German papers for so doing. But this is the true way to investigate Communism. Dr. Ely has published a pamphlet in the University studies, Vol. III, No. 4, upon some of the more recent phases of American Socialism, based upon a collection of American socialistic tracts, pamphlets, and newspapers which he has been gathering for over a year. He is now preparing, with the co-operation of some of his advanced students, a book upon the history of political economy in the United States, another upon the history of American co-operation, and a still larger work upon the history of political economy in general. The second of these works will soon be published as a volume of the university studies.

Dr. Albert Shaw, a graduate student, now editor of the Minneapolis Tribune, and author of a remarkable paper on co-operation in Minneapolis, prepared his monograph on "Icaria," a chapter in the history

¹ Dr. Ely's work on "The Labor Movement in America," 373 pages octavo, was lately published by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York.

² Henry A. James, author of a Yale John A. Porter Prize Essay (1878) on "Communism in America" (New York, H. Holt & Co., 1879), gathered material for his work by interviewing the communists in their city haunts. A similar paper on "American Socialism" was prepared in the same way by Mr. James for the Historical and Political Science Association of the Johns Hopkins University.

of American communism (published by G. P. Putnam's Sons), not simply by reading Nordhoff's *Communitic Societies in America*, but by going in person to an Icarian community in Southwestern Iowa, and there interviewing Jean Baptiste Gerard, A. A. Marchand, and other old associates of Cabet. Mr. Shaw spent a week with these men. He read in communistic libraries the original French literature upon the subject of Icaria, rare tracts by Cabet; there he had access to French newspapers edited by Cabet, and to a set of the *Revue Icarienne*, published at Nauvoo, Illinois, that comfortable old Mormon nest into which the Icarians, for a time, settled down in peace and prosperity. In those simple agrarian communities of our western country Mr. Shaw found some of the now harmless factors of the Paris Commune of 1871, men of the keenest intellect and boldest ambitions, professedly still busy with their schemes and correspondence, but really vegetating upon the broad prairies and going quietly to seed as excellent farmers and good citizens.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

In Political Economy proper, as well as in the History of Political Economy, the same method of original research and student-lectures is pursued with gratifying results. Among the graduate efforts in this department have been lectures on Predecessors of Adam Smith in England, Adam Smith, the Theory of Population, the Economic Functions of Government, the Physiocrats, Jean Baptiste Say, Bastiat, Political Economy in America previous to Henry C. Carey, the Carey School of Political Economy, American Economics since Henry C. Carey, the National Banking System, the Income Tax, the Financial History of the United States during the Civil War, Effects of the Reduction of the Internal Revenue Taxes upon the Baltimore Consumer, the Financial History of Baltimore, Finances of Kentucky, Finances of Pennsylvania. Among undergraduate efforts have been discussions of the Formation and Growth of Capital, Rent, Wages, Interest, Bimetallism and Monometallism, Communistic Experiments in the United States, Independent Treasury, Direct and Indirect Taxation.

CHAPTER VII.

HISTORY IN COLLEGES FOR WOMEN.

I.

VASSAR COLLEGE.

President James M. Taylor has furnished the following statement:

"The college was founded in 1861, and was designed, in the founder's words, 'to accomplish for young women what our colleges are accomplishing for young men.' It aims to give a thorough collegiate education, and its present equipment enables it to offer that to its students. It has thirteen professorships and a large corps of assistant teachers, extensive cabinets, a finely equipped astronomical observatory, a chemical and physical laboratory with its own endowment, a library of fifteen thousand volumes, which has a permanent fund for its increase, an art gallery, a school of music, and a school of painting.

"The chairs of classical languages, and physics and chemistry, are endowed, and that of astronomy is in part endowed. Other endowments are for the use of the library, cabinets, and art gallery, for the aid of students, and for repair and maintenance of the foundation. The curriculum is, in general scope, like that of our leading colleges.

"The college has not yet had a distinct chair of history. History has been taught to the senior class by the president, and the attempt has been made to atone for the lack of special instruction by particular attention to the subject on the part of our classical teachers and our professor of English. Much more has thus been done than would be suggested by the statement that we have no department of history. I cannot say what methods have been followed by my predecessors."

Dr. S. L. Caldwell, the predecessor of President Taylor, conveyed to the writer of this report the following information, dated May 15, 1885:

"It has fallen to me in defect of a special teacher to give instruction in history. I send you a conspectus which I have prepared for the help of the students, and which is also used by some candidates for the second degree in a post-graduate course. This indicates the ground covered, of course not with any great thoroughness. My purpose has been to furnish the senior class with an outline or sketch to be filled in by subsequent reading, endeavoring to initiate them into the

proper methods of studying history. The conspectus indicates the sources which they may use, having first grasped the general course, which endeavors to trace the continuity of mediæval and modern history, finding its sources in the Roman Imperial Period. Of course they can go further back if they choose, having begun with the Roman Empire and the Teutonic Invasions, out of which modern Europe and America issue.

"As yet, with such inadequate provision for teaching history, nothing has been done in political science except as connected with ethics and political economy. This I consider quite a defect even in a collegiate course for young women, and I hope something may be done to remedy it at some time."

The conspectus of a course of reading in history, mediæval and modern, by President Caldwell, comprises thirteen pages of well-selected authorities, arranged for long or short courses upon such great topics: the Roman Empire; the Rise and Growth of the Christian Church; the Middle Ages; the New Nations and Their Invasions; the Rise of Mohammedanism and the Saracen Invasions; the Papacy and Empire; Feudalism; Monasticism; England; the Saxon, Danish, and Norman Invasions; the Crusades; the Ottoman Power; Italy and the Renaissance; the Papal Schism, General Councils, &c.; Modern Europe; the Protestant Reformation; the Reformation in England; England after the Plantagenets; the French Revolution; American History.

These topics indicate the range of class instruction under President Caldwell, who wished his students to supplement class-work by private reading. The list of books was made partly with reference to the resources of the Vassar College library and partly with reference to the convenience and varied wants of large classes of students, some of whom were studying for the A. B. degree and some for the degree of A. M.

"As to the present status and my own plans," continues President Taylor, "I may add that I propose to make Mediæval History the subject of study for the senior class; and it will be a *required* study this year. I shall use Guizot as my text-book, but shall also lecture independently, and shall require much collateral reading and much essay work. I should add that I propose having some special worker on American History give a short course of lectures here during this year, dwelling on the turning points of our history. At present we require an examination in United States History of all entering college, and recommend familiarity with students' histories of Greece and Rome.

"Next year I hope to have the department organized and in charge of a professor. Our requirements for admission in that case will be at once raised, and the prescribed courses of history will be placed in the early part of the course, giving us opportunities for electives in American History and English Constitutional History in the latter part."

The recent appointment of Miss Salmon, fellow in history at Bryn Mawr, 1886-'87, and A. M. of the University of Michigan, 1883, to teach history at Vassar College will doubtless result in the satisfactory reorganization of the entire department.

Advance sheets of the catalogue for 1887 announce the following courses in history for 1887-'88: Freshman year, second semester, lectures on the History of Art, one hour weekly (elective); sophomore year, first semester, three hours (prescribed); Oriental, Grecian, and Roman History to 476 A. D.; sophomore year, second semester, four hours (elective), History of the Eastern and Western Empires, Conversion of the Northern Nations, the Holy Roman Empire, Crusades, Renaissance, and Reformation; junior year, first and second semester, three hours (elective), History from the Reformation through the French Revolution, with a Survey of Contemporary Europe; senior year, first semester, four hours (elective), English and American Constitutional History; senior year, second semester, three hours (elective), Political Economy.

"The library facilities are fair. The officers of the institution have all had much interest in this department. Still such statements are *relative*, and we have not more than a fair collection of books bearing on history. We have, however, just recovered the use of our library fund, and shall add many other works at once. The library is open to all students, and the shelves are accessible to all. The students use it precisely as if it were their own private library. In our reading-room we have two or three American magazines of history. We have not yet a separate building with the facilities that that will give us."

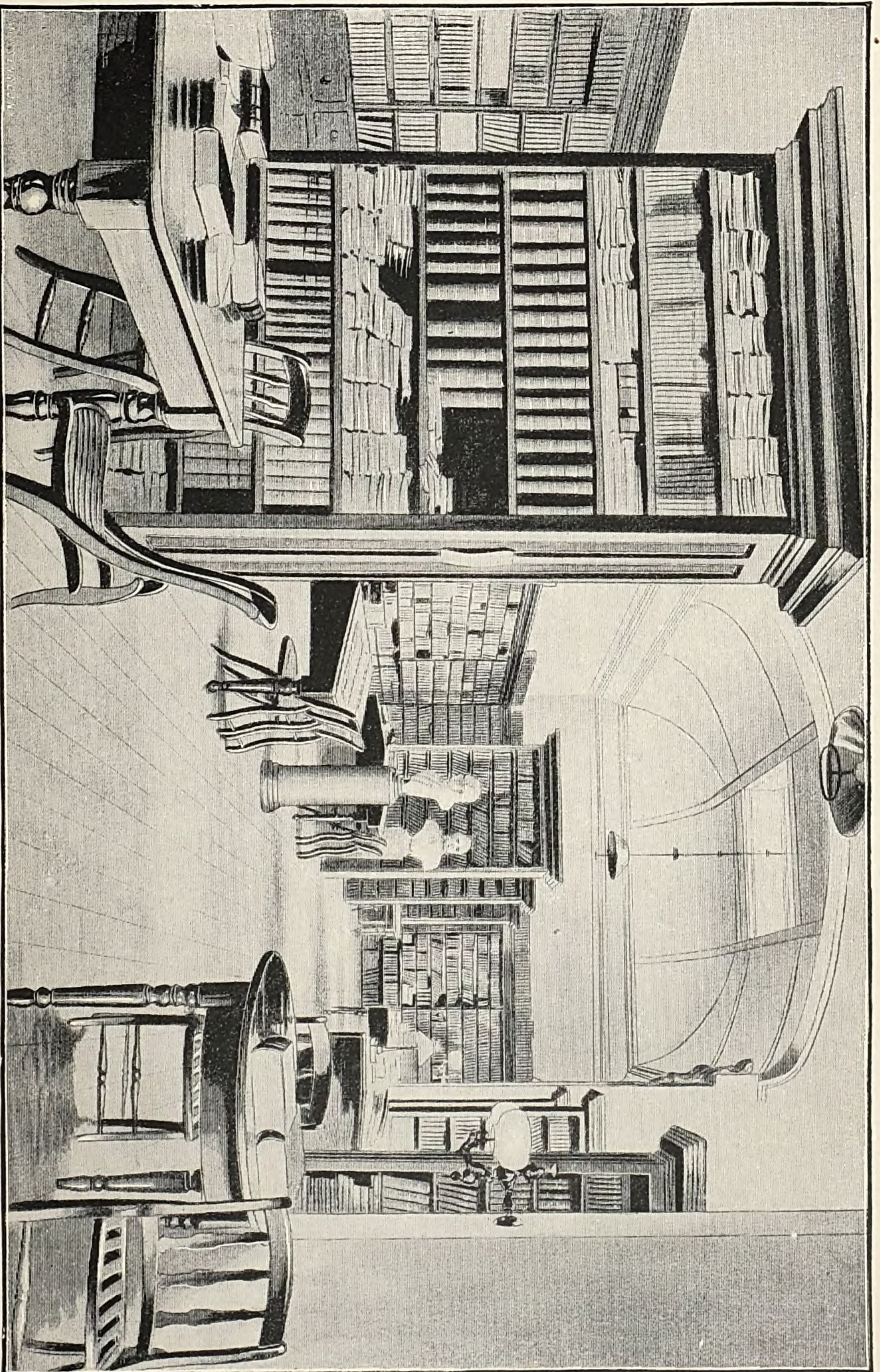
A view of the library interior of Vassar College, where much good work has been and is done in the reading of history, is shown in connection with the present chapter. Instruction in the use of the library is given at Vassar.

II.

WELLESLEY COLLEGE.¹

This popular institution for the higher education of young women was founded by Mr. Henry F. Durant. It was first opened to students in 1875. The college is beautifully situated in the town of Wellesley, in a large park of over 300 acres, upon a commanding site overlooking

¹ Interesting facts concerning Wellesley College may be found in an article upon the subject by Jean Kincaid, published in *Education*, January, 1887; also, in an article on Wellesley College, by Dr. Alexander McKenzie, published in *The Independent*, October 8, 1885. The annual calendars of the college describe in a felicitous way the various departments of the institution and contain charming illustrations of the college buildings and scenic environment. For natural surroundings Wellesley, with its fine views and beautiful lake (attractive for rowing and skating), is worthy of admiration. A good article upon Wellesley College may be found in the *Boston Advertiser*, March 21, 1884.



VASSAR COLLEGE LIBRARY—POUGHKEEPSIE, N. Y.

Lake Waban. The town is only 15 miles from Boston and upon the main thoroughfare of Massachusetts, the Boston and Albany Railroad. Apparently retired from the world, it is well connected with all the helpful influences which make for the highest education.

Wellesley College combines the best features of centralization and local government in its system of student life. There is one main building, of the Vassar type, "475 feet long, 150 feet wide at the wings, and five stories high." This central building is not only a dormitory for students and teachers, but it also contains a chapel, libraries, lecture-rooms, laboratories, studio, offices, and dining-hall "capable of seating three hundred and seventy-five persons." Besides this spacious central building there are various cottages, where students who prefer a more quiet and domestic order of life can find it. There is a special building for graduates and special students taking advanced electives. Here, also, is greater seclusion than in the central building; here, too, are small dining-rooms for groups of students.

The library of Wellesley College is described as "a light, spacious, alcoved room, two stories in height, handsomely finished in black walnut, and containing thirty thousand carefully-selected volumes. This collection was begun by the presentation of Mr. Durant's own private library of ten thousand volumes, and has since been increased by valuable gifts from various friends." Chief among the recent benefactors of the Wellesley College library is Prof. Eben Norton Horsford, of Cambridge, Mass., who has established a fund for the supply of books and has made special contributions to the resources of the historical department. Professor Horsford has also generously provided for professorial vacations, to be enjoyed after a given period of service; and he has placed Wellesley in advance of every other college in the country by providing pensions for retired teachers who have served a given number of years.

One remarkable and very progressive feature of library administration at Wellesley College is the distribution of a certain class of books in the class-rooms and laboratories for instant reference. This method has been found highly advantageous both at Wellesley and at the Johns Hopkins University. Where the method conflicts with the interests of the general library or other departments duplicate collections should be purchased, presented, or secured by class-philanthropy.

An interesting feature of student-organization at Wellesley is a debating society conducted after the model of the English House of Commons. This experiment was first essayed by undergraduates in the Johns Hopkins University, but, judging from published reports,¹ the young women of Wellesley have developed the idea in a highly dramatic and realistic form. They impersonate well-known characters in English politics, and evidently find as much amusement in parliamentary pro-

¹ See The Courant, Wellesley, Mass., February 18, 1887, Parliamentary Summary (*à la* The Times).

cedure as do Harvard students in private theatricals. Aside from the charm of novelty and entertainment, this kind of debating society at Wellesley tends to acquaint girls not only with parliamentary forms and institutions, but with the actual significance of such great problems as the Irish question. In Baltimore the boys stick to *American* political questions, but employ the English procedure of the House of Commons because it is convenient for purposes of debate and affords great sport for the opposition as well as for the ministry and party in power. It is, of course easy to ridicule this sort of political play, but it is quite as legitimate as moot-courts; it is an object-lesson in politics, almost as instructive and entertaining as a night-scene in Congress or in the House of Commons.

The following account by Mrs. Mary Sheldon Barnes¹ describes the early development of historical work at Wellesley College:

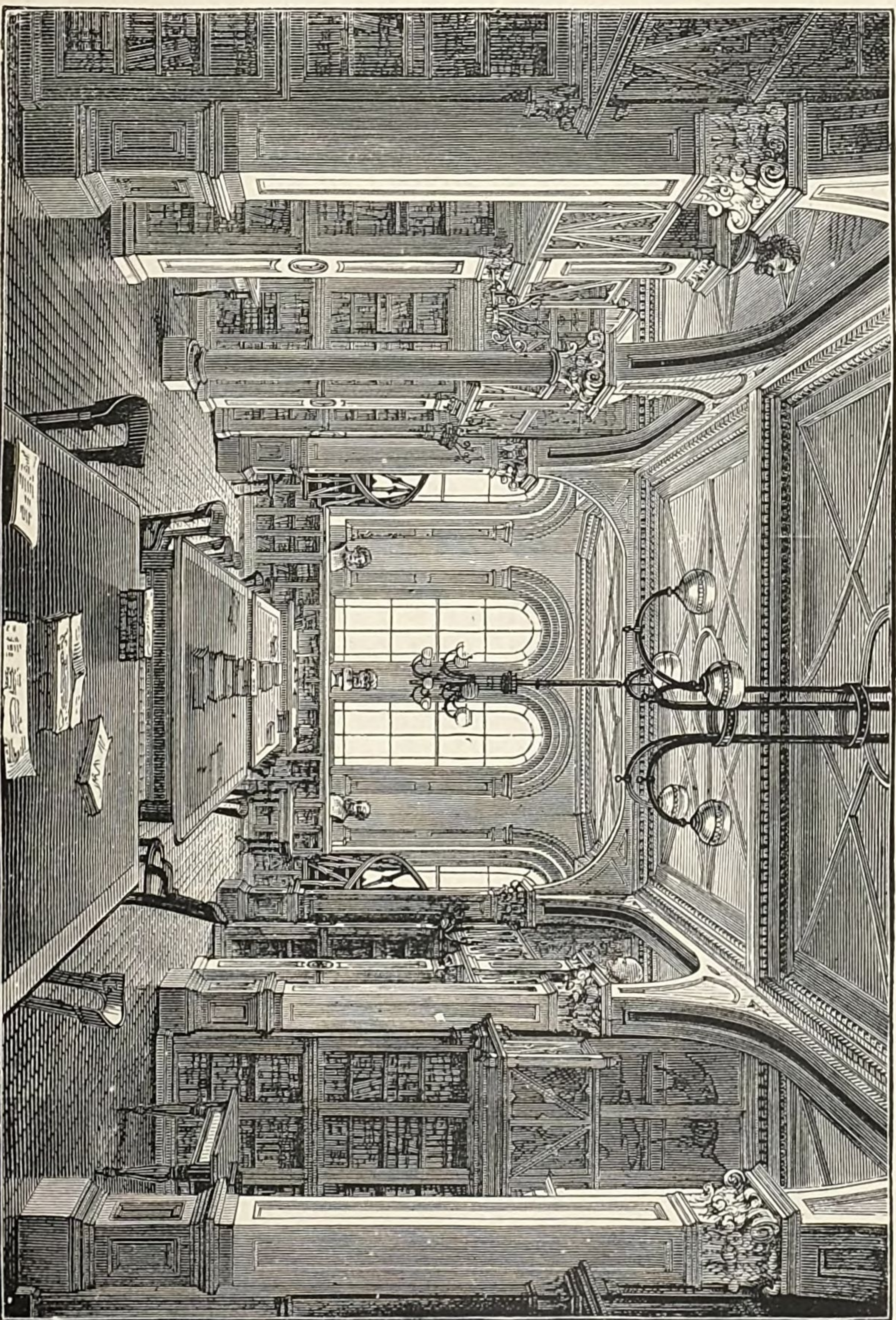
“Some history was taught at Wellesley before I went there in 1877; but the department was not organized until the fall of that same year. The only conditions imposed were that the study should extend throughout the course, that the professor or instructor should meet the classes once a week, and that not more than two hours a week of individual work should be required. This gave approximately forty hours of classroom work for each student each year, or one hundred and twenty hours of attention. No part of the course was to be elective. All this was determined by Mr. Durant.

“Very few students entered well read in this subject. It was therefore thought best to give our attention during the first three years to a general course, devoting the freshman year to Greek, the sophomore to Roman, the junior to Mediæval and Modern History. This left the senior year free for special studies, and the special study chosen for the first and only senior class under my care was the development of the British Constitution.

“The classes when large were divided into sections, so that the number of each class or section should not exceed twenty. The excellent library, full sets of illustrative maps, and photographs were freely accessible to the students.

“From the beginning no set text-book was employed. During the first three years every week a number of pages of material, prepared from original sources, were copied by the electric pen, and a copy was placed in the hands of every student. Accompanying this material a dozen or more problems were set requiring independent and original thought on the part of the individual, and as much additional reading was suggested and encouraged as possible, especially from contemporary literature. During these first three years the class-room hour was largely devoted to conversation and discussion. Every student was encouraged to express fully and freely the results of her own private work. These were criticised and compared with the results reached by the other

¹ Author of Sheldon's General History.



WELLESLEY COLLEGE LIBRARY — WELLESLEY, MASS.

members of the class. Before the topic in hand was left the results were all summarized and placed on the blackboard in tabular form. Each student kept a note-book, into which she entered these tabulated summaries, for the contents of which each student was responsible on examination. During the freshman year these summaries were mostly made for the students; but as time went on they were required not only to work out their own results, but more and more to generalize and average them.

"In the senior year we left this general course and method and entered upon a careful, thorough, and detailed study of the British Constitution, using Stubbs as our guide. Every collateral authority within our reach was read and discussed. The work was done by periods and topics and our results summarized at the close of each part of our study. Our forty hours being necessarily abridged by the interruptions of the senior year, we were far from completing our task. We had, however, accomplished what we had resolved upon, namely, a thorough and scholarly treatment of the subject so far as we pursued it.

"Throughout the course the work in history aimed to do two things: First, to give the students information enough to give them a clear intellectual appreciation of the general development and characteristics of European history; second, to train them to think and feel historically, to deal thoughtfully and sympathetically with historic fact. Whether the first aim was accomplished I cannot say; that the second was abundantly and satisfactorily attained may, perhaps, be believed. I cannot, however, forbear to add that experience has taught me how to fulfil both far more completely."

The foregoing account by Mrs. Mary Sheldon Barnes is well supplemented by the following report from Miss Coman, who is now in charge of the historical department at Wellesley:

"College work in history was begun in the fall of 1876 under the direction of Professor Mary D. Sheldon, B. A. (University of Michigan), 1874. At that time the study of history was required throughout the college course under the 'weekly' system—*i e.*, one recitation per week. The courses offered were as follows: Freshman year, History of Greece; sophomore year, History of Rome; junior year, study of mediæval institutions; senior year, development of modern ideas of social and political life.

"Miss Sheldon's methods are very well illustrated by her 'Studies in General History.' The work was done as far as possible from original materials.

"The students were furnished with suggestive outlines of political history and methods of government, with extracts from literature, laws, charters, &c., with illustrations of typical art and architecture. They were taught to observe, to draw conclusions, to recognize the significance of events.

"Miss Alice E. Freeman, B. A. (University of Michigan), 1876, was called to the chair of history in 1879, and retained that position until the autumn of 1885. Miss Freeman secured a radical change in the arrangement of the required work in history and offered several elective courses.

"The required work was as follows:

"Freshman year: One recitation per week; lectures in Grecian and Roman History.

"Junior year: Two to three recitations per week; lectures and library work in the history of civilization.

"The elective work comprised five courses of a semester each, three hours per week.

"I. Political History of England.

"II. Political History of France.

"III. Political History of Modern Europe.

"IV. Constitutional History of England.

"V. Constitutional History of the United States.

"Much attention is still given to original materials, but larger requirements are made from students in the way of library work. Tabular views still fulfil the office of text-books, and a detailed list of references for each topic is placed in the hands of the students. The usual arrangement of a tri-weekly course is a lecture and two recitations each week, the young ladies being expected to present in recitation the results of their study. We secure original and independent work by assigning topics for special investigation to individual students. We secure a solid foundation of facts and a valuable basis for future work by requiring that a concise and systematic record of work be kept in note-book form.

"I have been in charge of the department since the fall of 1885. My assistants are Miss M. B. F. Roberts, B. A., M. A. (Cornell University), 1880 and 1884, and Miss M. A. Knox, of Elmira College. The important changes made during my administration are as follows:

"I. Grecian and Roman History have been placed among the requirements for entrance examination and the lectures of the freshman year discontinued.

"II. A course in the Principles of Political Economy has been undertaken by the department.

"III. The work in Constitutional History has been considerably advanced.

"(a) The course in the History of Civilization or some equivalent is a prerequisite.

"(b) Students are trained to independent work. Tabular views are furnished the students, but no preliminary lectures are given.

"The authorities are Stubbs, Hallam, and May for English, and Bancroft, Hildreth, Von Holst, &c., for United States History. Original sources: Select charters, Congressional debates, speeches, &c.

“(c) These are presented, involving detailed investigation and synthetic thought.

“(d) Illustrations of Methods of Parliamentary Procedure have been arranged with good success.

“Last year we debated the home-rule question in Parliamentary form. A hall was fitted up in imitation of the House of Commons; the speaker and sergeant-at-arms appeared in costume. The three parties, with their leading members, were spiritedly represented. The bill was read, debated, and put to vote. A division was taken on it with a result that would have been gratifying to Mr. Gladstone. The right of nullification was also debated according to Senatorial procedure.

“The number of students at present (1886-’87) in this department :

Constitutional History	27
Modern History	9
History of Civilization	98
English Political History	53
Resident graduate students	2
Non-resident graduate students	11

“It is proposed to offer the following additional electives for the coming year: A study of Ancient Civilization; European History since 1789; Practical Problems in Political Economy.

“The distinctive features of our work at Wellesley are :

“I. The substitution of tabular views and library references for text books.

“II. The large amount of library work done by students.

“The number of historical works in our library is as follows :

	Vols.
History	2,700
Biography	1,600
Travels	850
Sociology	850
Total	6,000

“*Periodicals*.—American Magazine of History; Papers of American Historical Association; Johns Hopkins University Studies; Quarterly Journal of Economics; beside thirty-six general periodicals and twenty-three daily or weekly papers.

“The books and papers are as immediately accessible to the students as they would be in a private library.

“III. The amount of individual attention given to students. Our large teaching force enables us to divide our classes into small sections. There are never more than thirty students in a section.”

III.

SMITH COLLEGE.

Smith College is an excellent institution for the higher education of young women. It was founded in Northampton, Mass., in the year 1875, by the bequest of Miss Sophia Smith, a near kinswoman of the

founder of the Smith charities in the same town, which is one of the most remarkable in New England for its institutions of philanthropy. The college stands upon a charming site, the very acropolis of the city, and is one of the best illustrations that the writer has ever seen of the advantages of a municipal environment in the higher education of women. The same contest of town site *versus* country seclusion, which was successfully fought out by the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, was still earlier settled by the trustees of Smith College in Northampton, Mass. It was a victory more noteworthy, perhaps, than men thought at the time it was won, for it meant *the triumph of society over the cloister*; it meant the growth of a college for women amid all the advantages of a healthful, well-regulated community, with churches, libraries, book-stores, and all the conveniences and refinements of civilized life. Very significant also of modern educational progress was the substitution of the cottage system¹ for the dormitory system, or the home for the cloister. Instead of having one great abbey or convent for guarding the flock, Smith College from the outset distributed its students in cottages and family groups, each in the charge of a cultivated lady, having her own parlors and domestic establishment. The proximity of the college to the home life of Northampton offers further means towards completing the transition from mediæval to modern, from artificial to natural, modes of student living.

The institution now has well-organized departments in the languages, ancient and modern, mathematics and the sciences, history and political science, philosophy, art, music, &c. The first instruction in history was given by a lady teacher, Miss Humphreys, who taught entirely by text-books. From 1878 to 1881, inclusive, history was taught at Smith College by H. B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University, who spent the spring term of each year lecturing at Northampton. His recollections of that phase of historical work at Smith College are here reprinted from Dr. G. S. Hall's Pedagogical Library, Vol. I, "Methods of Teaching and Studying History," pp. 115-122:

"The study of history was pursued by four classes in regular gradation, somewhat after the college model. The first, corresponding to the 'freshman' class, studied oriental or ante-classic history, embracing the Stone Age, Egypt, Palestine, Phœnicia, the empires of Mesopotamia and ancient India. This course was pursued in 1879 by dictations and extempore lectures on the part of the teacher, and by independent reading on the part of the pupils. The first thing done by the teacher in the introduction to the history of any of the above-mentioned countries, was to explain the sources from which the history of that country was derived, and then to characterize briefly the principal literary works relating to it, not omitting historical novels, like Ebers' "Egyp-

¹ Upon this point and upon the general characteristics of Smith College, see Miss M. A. Jordan's interesting and illustrated article on "Smith College," in the New England Magazine and Bay State Monthly, January, 1887.

tian Princess,' or 'Uarda.' Afterwards the salient features in Egyptian history, for example, were presented by the instructor, under distinct heads, such as geography, religion, art, literature, and chronology. Map-drawing by and before the class was insisted upon; and, in connection with the foregoing subjects, books or portions of books were recommended for private reading. For instance, on the 'Geography of Egypt,' fifty pages of Herodotus were assigned in Rawlinson's translation. This and other reading was done in the so-called 'Reference Library,' which was provided with all the books that were recommended. An oral account of such reading was sooner or later demanded from each pupil by the instructor, and fresh points of information were thus continually brought out. The amount of positive fact acquired by a class of seventy-five bright young women bringing together into one focus so many individual rays of knowledge, collected from the best authorities, is likely to burn to ashes the dry bones of any text-book and to keep the instructor at a white heat.

"As an illustration of the amount of reading done *in one term* of ten weeks by this class of beginners in history, the following fair specimen of the lists handed in at the end of the academic year of 1879 is appended. The reading was, of course, by topics:

EGYPT.

- "Unity of History (Freeman).
- Geography (Herodotus).
- Gods of Egypt (J. Freeman Clarke).
- Manners and Customs (Wilkinson).
- Upper Egypt (Klunzinger).
- Art of Egypt (Lübke).
- Hypatia (Kingsley).
- Egyptian Princess (Ebers).

PALESTINE.

- "Sinai and Palestine, 40 pages (Stanley).
- History of the Jews (extracts from Josephus).
- The Beginnings of Christianity, chap. VII (Fisher).
- Religion of the Hebrews (J. Freeman Clarke).

PHœNICIA, ASSYRIA, ETC.

- "Phœnicia, 50 pages (Kenrick).
- Assyrian Discoveries (George Smith).
- Chaldean Account of Genesis (George Smith).
- Assyrian Architecture (Fergusson).
- Art of Central Asia (Lübke).

"In the second, or 'sophomore' class, classic history was pursued by means of the History Primers of Greece and Rome, supplemented by lectures and dictations, as the time would allow. The junior class studied mediæval history in much the same way, by text-books (the Epoch Series) and by lectures. Both classes did excellent work of its kind, but it was not the best kind; for little or no stimulus was given

to original research. And yet, perhaps, to an outsider, fond of old-fashioned methods of recitation, these classes would have appeared better than the first class. They did harder work, but it was less spontaneous and less scientific. The fault was a fault of method.

“With the senior class the topical method was tried with marked success. With text-books on modern history as a guide for the whole class, the plan was followed out of assigning to individuals subjects with references for private reading and for an oral report of about fifteen minutes’ length. The class took notes on these reports or informal student-lectures as faithfully as on the extended remarks and more formal lectures of the instructor. This system of making a class lecture to itself is, of course, very unequal in its immediate results, and sometimes unsatisfactory; but, as a system of individual training for advanced pupils, it is valuable as a means both of culture and of discipline. Contrast the good to the individual student of any amount of mere text-book memorizing or idle note-taking with the positive culture and wide acquaintance with books, derived *in ten weeks* from such a range of reading as is indicated in the following *bonâ fide* report by one member of the senior class (1879), who afterwards was a special student of history for two years in the “Annex” at Harvard College, and who in 1881 returned to Smith College for her degree of Ph. D. First are given the subjects assigned to this young woman for study, and the reading done by her in preparation for report to the class; and then is given the list of her general reading in connection with the class-work of the term. Other members of the class had other subjects and similar reports:

I.—SUBJECTS FOR RESEARCH.

- “1. *Anselm and Roscellinus.*
Milman’s Latin Christianity, Vol. IV, pp. 190–225.
Ueberweg’s History of Philosophy, Vol. I, pp. 271–385.
- “2. *Platonic Academy at Florence.*
Roscoe’s Life of Lorenzo di Medici, Vol. I, p. 30 *et seq.*
Burckhardt’s Renaissance, Vol. I.
Villari’s Machiavelli, Vol. i, p. 205 *et seq.*
- “3. *Colet.*
Seebohm’s Oxford Reformers.
- “4. *Calvin.*
Fisher’s History of the Reformation (Calvin).
Spalding’s History of the Reformation (Calvin).
D’Aubigné’s History of the Reformation, Vol. I, book 2, chap. 7.
- “5. *Frederick the Great.*
Macaulay’s Essay on Frederick the Great.
Lowell’s Essay on Frederick the Great.
Ency. Brit. Article on Frederick the Great.
Menzel’s History of Germany (Frederick the Great).
Carlyle’s Frederick the Great (parts of Vols. I, II, III).
- “6. *Results of the French Revolution.*
French Revolution (Epoch Series).

II.—GENERAL READING.

“Roscoe’s Life of Leo X (one-half of Vol. I).

Mrs. Oliphant’s *Makers of Florence* (on cathedral builders, Savonarola, a Private Citizen, Michel Angelo).

Symonds’ *Renaissance* (Savonarola).

Walter Pater’s *Renaissance* (Leonardo da Vinci).

Hallam’s *Middle Ages* (on Italian Republics).

Benvenuto Cellini’s *Autobiography* (about one-half).

Burckhardt’s *Renaissance* (nearly all).

Vasari’s *Lives of the Painters* (da Vinci, Alberti).

Lowell’s *Essay on Dante*.

Carlyle’s *Essay on Dante*.

Trench’s *Mediaeval Church History* (Great Councils of the West, Huss and Bohemia, Eve of the Reformation).

Fisher’s *History of the Reformation* (Luther).

White’s *Eighteen Christian Centuries* (16th).

Macaulay’s *Essay on Ranke’s History of the Popes*.

Lecky’s *European Morals* (last chapter).

Seeböhm’s *Era of the Protestant Revolution*.

Froude’s *Short Studies on Great Subjects* (studies on the times of Erasmus and Luther, the Dissolution of the Monasteries).

Spalding’s *History of the Reformation* (chapter on Luther).

Carlyle’s *Essay on Luther and Knox*.

Hosmer’s *German Literature* (chapters on Luther, Thirty Years’ War, Minnesingers and Mastersingers).

Gardiner’s *Thirty Years’ War*.

Morris’s *Age of Anne*.

George Eliot’s *Romola* (about one-half).

Hawthorne’s *Marble Faun* (parts).

“It is but fair to say in reference to this vast amount of reading that it represents the chief work done by the above-mentioned young lady during the summer term, for her class exercises were mainly lectures requiring little outside study. The list will serve not merely as an illustration of senior work in history at Smith College, but also as an excellent guide for a course of private reading on the Renaissance and Reformation. No more interesting or profitable course can be followed than a study of the *Beginnings of Modern History*. With Symonds’ works on the Renaissance in Italy, Burckhardt’s *Civilization of the Period of the Renaissance* (English translation), and Seeböhm’s *Era of the Protestant Revolution* (Epoch series) for guide-books, a college instructor can indicate to his pupils lines of special investigation more grateful than text-book ‘cramming,’ more inspiring than lectures or dictations. The latter, though good to a certain extent, become deadening to a class when its members are no longer stimulated to original research, but sink back in passive reliance upon the authority of the lecturer. That method of teaching history which converts bright young pupils into note-taking machines is a bad method. It is the construction of a poor text-book at the expense of much valuable time and youthful energy. Goethe satirized this, the fault of German academic instruction, in Mephistopheles’ counsel to the student, who is advised

to study well his notes, in order to see that the professor says nothing which he has not said already:

“Damit ihr nachher besser seht,
Dass er nichts sagt, als was im Buche steht;
Doch euch des Schreibens ja befleisst,
Als dictirt' euch der Heilig' Geist!

“The simple-minded student assents to this counsel, and says it is a great comfort to have everything in black and white, so that he can carry it all home. But no scrap-book of facts can give wisdom, any more than a tank of water can form a running spring. It is, perhaps, of as much consequence to teach a young person *how* to study history as to teach him history itself.

“The above notes were written in the summer of 1879, and were published in October of that year, after the author's return to Baltimore. Subsequent experience at Smith College, in the spring terms of 1880 and 1881, when the lecturer's four years' partial connection with Smith College terminated, showed the necessity of a reference library for each class, the resources of the main collection in the reading-room having proved inadequate to the growing historical needs of the college. Instead of buying text-books, the members of each class, with the money which text-books would have cost, formed a library fund, from which a book committee purchased such standard works (often with duplicate copies) as the lecturer recommended. The class libraries were kept in places generally accessible; for example, in the front halls of the “cottage” dormitories. Each class had its own system of rules for library administration. Books that were in greatest demand could be kept out only one or two days. The amount of reading by special topics accomplished in this way in a single term was really most remarkable. Note-books with abstracts of daily work were kept, and finally handed in as a part of the term's examination. Oral examinations upon reading, pursued in connection with the lectures, were maintained throughout the term, and, at the close, a written examination upon the lectures and other required topics, together with a certain range of optional subjects, fairly tested the results of this voluntary method of historical study. The amount of knowledge acquired in this way would as much surpass the substance of any system of lectures or any mere text-book acquisitions as a class library of standard historians surpasses an individual teacher or any historical manual. This method of study is practicable in any high-school class of moderate size. If classes are generous, they will leave their libraries to successors, who can thus build up a collection for historical reference within the school itself, which will thus become a seminary of living science.”

The present character of historical instruction at Smith College is thus described by Professor John B. Clark, who now represents a well developed department of historical and political science:

“The course of instruction in history offered at Smith College extends through eight terms, requiring, during each term, about two hours a

week of work in the class-room, which implies about six hours per week of actual study. Of these subcourses three are now devoted to ancient history, one to mediæval, and four to modern. They are consecutively arranged, the freshmen beginning with Grecian History, and the seniors ending with the Recent History of Europe and the Political History of the United States.

"The method pursued involves the use of some text-books and of many books of reference; it depends, however, chiefly upon lectures, which extend throughout the course. Of the subcourses the first three are required of all students in the classical department, and the remainder are elective. Somewhat more of historical study is required of students pursuing the Literary course, and somewhat less of those pursuing the Scientific.

"In addition to the instruction given in the historical department itself, there are provided courses of lectures in the History of Art and of Literature, most of which are open to all the students. Lectures are also given, in the French language, on the Early History of France. By relying in part on the assistance thus afforded by supplementary courses, the instructor in General History is enabled to use the time allotted to him mainly for the study of the political development of ancient and modern states. The chief aim is to enable the student to view intelligently the political events now taking place. To this end the time and labor devoted to specific periods increases as the end of the course is approached. Modern History is studied more minutely than Mediæval, and Recent History more minutely than the Early Modern. The culmination of the course, in so far as European History is concerned, consists in the study of the development of popular government in France, and of national unity in Germany and Italy.

"Although the most that can be done within the limits of a college course is to make a selection from the mass of materials embraced in general history, it is the aim of the instructor to incite the students to pursue courses of reading which, as carried out, to some extent before graduation, but more afterwards, may give a somewhat adequate knowledge of the events of the past and the tendencies of the present.

"The materials for historical work, though fairly adequate for what is attempted, are less ample than it is expected that they will be in the near future. An endowment, now amounting to \$367,000, given to the city of Northampton by the late Judge Charles E. Forbes, will, in a short time, be available for the establishment of a public library, in addition to the one which the city now possesses. The library facilities upon which, in the meanwhile, the students depend consist of a reference library of somewhat over 5,000 volumes, belonging to the college, and a circulating library of about 21,000 volumes, belonging to the city. The books in these collections have been carefully selected, and are well adapted to the student's needs. They are constantly used, and have

afforded, if not facilities for original research, at least the means for attaining that insight into modern political events which it is the aim of the course to secure."

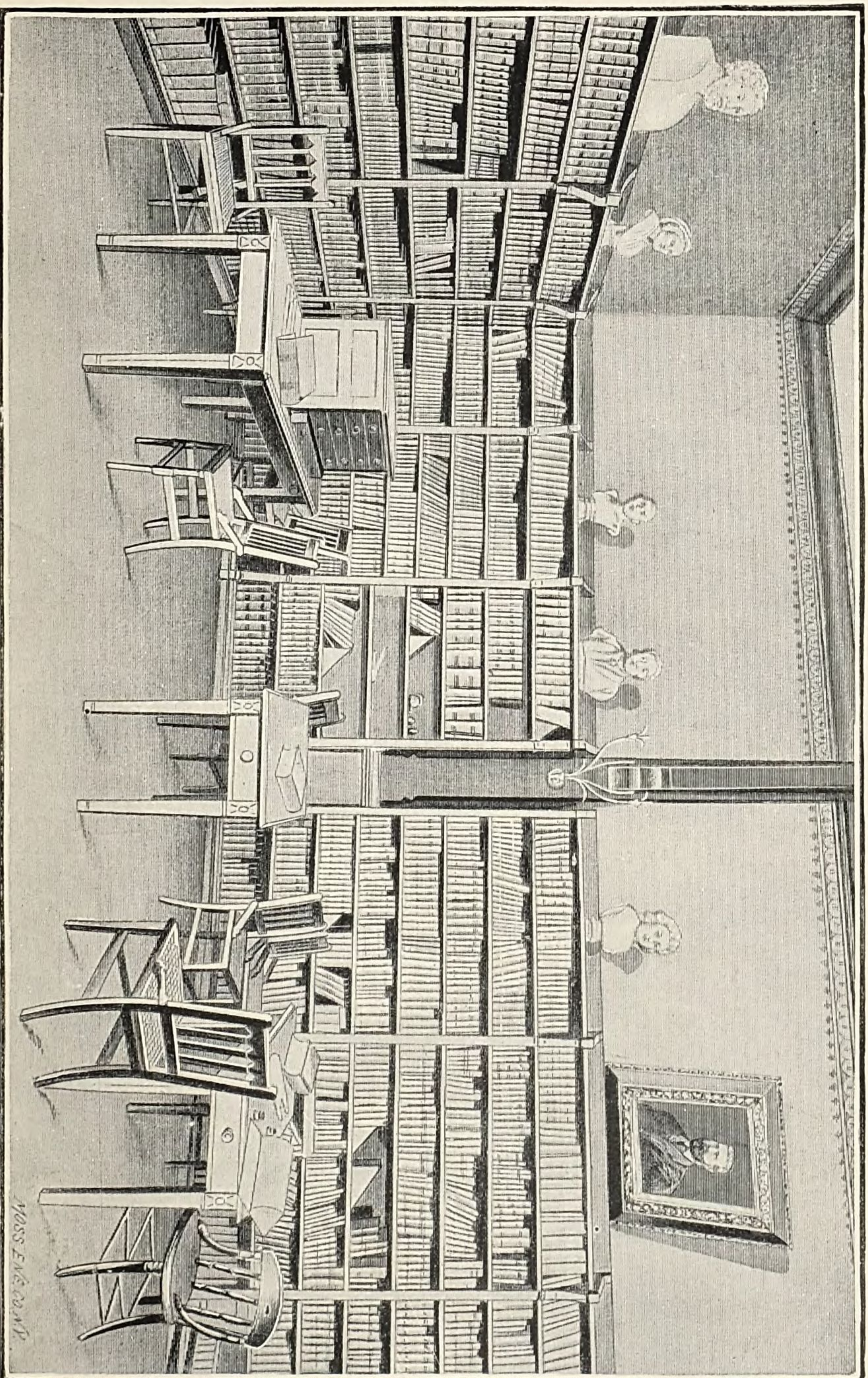
IV.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE.¹

Bryn Mawr College, for women, was founded and richly endowed by a member of the Society of Friends, Dr. Joseph W. Taylor, of Burlington, New Jersey, who died in 1880. During the latter part of his life plans for the college were thoroughly discussed. He visited in person Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley, and endeavored to combine the best features of all three. The site of the proposed college was chosen at Bryn Mawr, a Welsh name meaning high land. It is a beautiful suburban region near Philadelphia, with which it is closely connected by the Pennsylvania Railroad. . The place is in the world and yet not of it—an ideal position for all scholarship. Rural, yet metropolitan, Bryn Mawr is one of the happiest combinations. With the health and charm of country life it has the conveniences of a great town—libraries, museums, art, and social connections. It has a background of wealth and family clientage in Philadelphia, where the Society of Friends has always been influential.

Bryn Mawr, which was opened to students in 1885, adopted the "cottage-system" of Smith college, with all that could be learned from the more centralized life and administration of other institutions. It has borrowed its most striking academic features from the Johns Hopkins University, notably the "group system" of combining undergraduate studies. This system, to which Bryn Mawr first gave a felicitous name, promises to reconcile the new idea of electives with the old idea of a required course by opening up a *variety* of curricula, any one of which insures a liberal education and leads to the A. B. degree, while affording the candidate special training in a group of at least two congenial subjects, for example the two classics, history and political science, physics, and chemistry, mathematics and one of the classics. Whatever curriculum the candidate elects, he is bound to have two years of English studies, a knowledge of the modern languages, and a fair acquaintance with natural science, history, and philosophy, in addition to two years' special training in two major courses, which constitute the so-called "group." In this novel system there are required studies, in connection with an elected group, and a certain number of free electives. The whole system is one of remarkable elasticity, symmetry, and power.

¹ Information on Bryn Mawr College may be found in the Proceedings of Conferences on Education in the Society of Friends, in 1880; in the addresses at the inauguration of Bryn Mawr College, 1885 (James Russell Lowell and President D. C. Gilman were among the speakers); in programmes of Bryn Mawr College; and Bryn Mawr College for Woman, an article by Miss Kitty M. Gage, A. M., published in *Education*, September, 1886.



SMITH COLLEGE LIBRARY—NORTHAMPTON, MASS.

It prevents one-sided specialization, which may result from courses absolutely elective; and, on the other hand, it prevents cast-iron results, which sometimes come from forcing students into the same educational mold—the old-fashioned required course.

Before Bryn Mawr was organized there was the most careful inquiry on the part of its friends and trustees as to the best methods of procedure. Visits were made again and again to the most suggestive centers of educational experiment. The advice¹ of college presidents was obtained and printed, notably that of President L. Clark Seelye, of Smith College, Northampton, and President D. C. Gilman, of Baltimore. Most interesting and profitable discussions of the Bryn Mawr problem were held at an educational conference in the Society of Friends. The appointment of Dr. James E. Rhodes as president of the college and of Miss M. Carey Thomas, Ph. D., as dean of the faculty and professor of English, in 1884, brought all this inquiry to a focus. The best experience of the Old World and of the New was combined by Miss Thomas, who had studied at Cornell and Johns Hopkins Universities, at Leipsic, Zurich, and Paris. She took the doctor's degree in the University of Zurich with the highest honors.

Perhaps the most significant and promising feature of Bryn Mawr College is the high character of its faculty. Every member has been chosen because he or she was thoroughly fitted for the place. This recognition of the fact that specialization is needed in the education and choice of teachers for young women as well as young men is a most hopeful sign. Already Bryn Mawr is in position to develop graduate courses of instruction and to promote the university idea, or the very highest education of young women in America.

The attitude of Bryn Mawr towards the study of history and political science is indicated by the following extract from the address of President Rhodes at the inauguration of the college in 1885: "Perhaps no change in modern collegiate instruction has been more amply justified than the greater importance given to history and to political and social science. From the beginning of the organization of Bryn Mawr it has been a matter of solicitude that history should be so taught here as to bring into prominence the great laws which underlie historic movements and events, and to display the moral lessons they afford. History gratifies and develops a literary taste, and concerns itself with that subject of paramount interest, human life."

The early appointment of Woodrow Wilson, fellow in history at the Johns Hopkins University, to represent history and political science at Bryn Mawr was a recognition of special attainments already marked, although at the time of his election Mr. Wilson's doctor's thesis on "Congressional Government" had not yet been published. This remarkable

¹ The suggestions of Presidents Gilman and Seelye are printed in the Proceedings of a Conference in the Society of Friends, held at Haverford College, Pennsylvania, July 6-7, 1880, pp. 74-90.

volume has already passed through several editions and has been pronounced the ablest contribution to American political science since the *Federalist*. Readers of the book will be convinced that Bryn Mawr has a promising department of historical and political science. The following account of its preliminary organization and first year's work is by Dr. Wilson himself:

"The requirements for entrance are, the outlines of the histories of England and the United States, or the outlines of the histories of Greece and Rome. Students who expect to enter the classical courses are advised to offer Greek and Roman history; all others are advised to offer English and American history.

"The major course in history runs through two years, five hours a week. One year is devoted to ancient history, the other to mediæval and modern. Either year may be taken as a minor course.

"No attempt is made to cover the field of general history. The histories of Greece and Rome are taken as representative of ancient history, those of France and England as representative of mediæval and modern history, and it is the object of the instruction to make the students quite familiar with the development of these representative states. Constant text-book drill is combined with frequent lectures; and it is the aim of the lectures to open out the horizon necessary for a real understanding of the special tracts of history which are being traversed, by recounting the most important contemporary events in the histories of other countries, and by pointing out the chief and most memorable characteristics of the periods studied, as well as the philosophical connection of leading facts and tendencies. Lectures are also made use of to group and explain facts separated in the narrative of the text-book, and, in doing so, to keep the student mindful of the broad views of history to which the events in the lives of individual nations stand related. Recitations and lectures are supplemented by reports from members of the class on topics assigned (with bibliographical references) by the instructor.

"The work in Greek and Roman history is so conducted that the two histories are carried forward simultaneously, alternating with each other week by week, in order that the histories of the two countries may run parallel up to the point where Greek history is merged in Roman by conquest, with a view to enable the student when reading or when hearing lectures to perceive for herself contrasts or likenesses. It is intended to follow a similar plan with French and English history hereafter.

"In the course on Greek history lectures are given on such topics as the constitutional reforms of Solon and Clisthenes, the causes of the Persian invasion, the character and influence of the Confederacy of Delos, etc. As the history of the popular states of Greece turns largely upon the individual characters and influence of leading men, class reports concern principally the antecedents, lives, and work of the chief statesmen, dramatists, and orators.

"The lectures on Roman history develop such topics as the sources of Roman history, the causes, means, ends, and effects of Roman conquest, Roman provincial administration, agrarian troubles and reforms, etc. Text-book drill is made more prominent in this course than in that on Greek history, because, the internal history of Rome hinging so largely, down to the time of the empire, on class struggles and consequent legal and constitutional reforms, it is thought that an adequate knowledge of the development of the state can be gotten in no other way.

"The courses in ancient history are concluded and rounded out by lectures covering the period from the fall of the Western Empire to the establishment of the Empire of Charles the Great.

"In the second year three hours a week are given to English and French history throughout both semesters; two hours a week are devoted to lectures on American history during the first semester; and the same amount of time to lectures on the Italian Renaissance and the German Reformation during the second semester.

"In the course on English history text-book work is subordinate. The lecturers aim for the most part to throw light on the leading questions in the England of to-day. They treat, therefore, of the history of Ireland before and since the union with England and of the circumstances attending the consummation of that union; the history of the House of Lords, and of the Peerage; the history of the English Church; the history of representation in Parliament; the tariff; colonial government; the union with Scotland; the land laws and their effects on England and on Ireland, and other like topics; and text-book work is directed in these lines.

"The history of the United States is also discussed in topical lectures. Amongst the topics chosen are these: English colonial policy; contrasts in colonial life, manners, and institutions; the foundation of the colonies; England *vs.* France and Spain in America; the Revolution and its causes; the Constitution; history of political parties; the Monroe doctrine; President Jackson; the national bank; the Mexican war; the westward migration; the causes of the civil war; the results of the civil war.

"Each year's work is prefaced by a few lectures on the philosophy of history and the objects and methods of historical study.

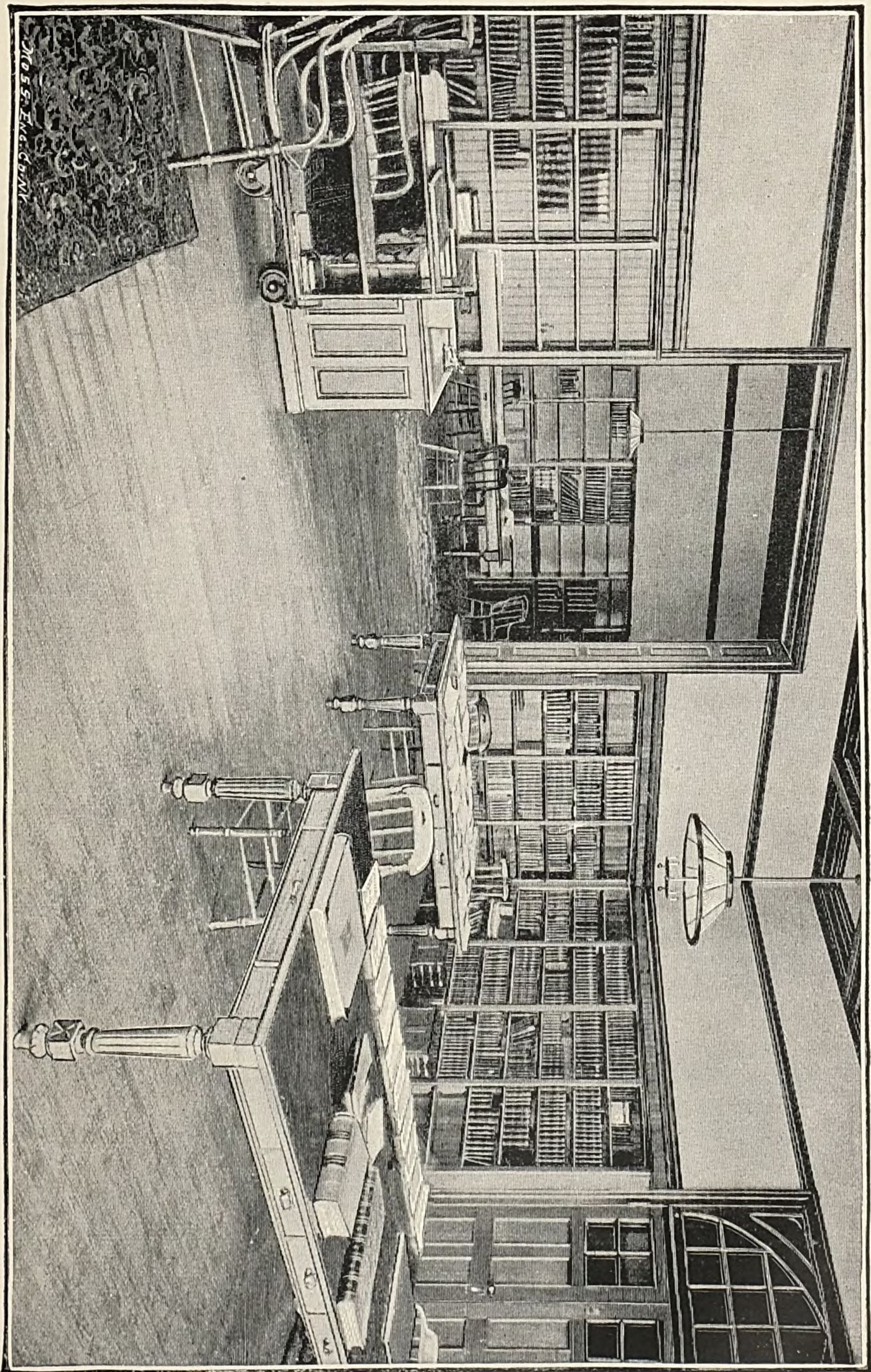
"The text-books used are Smith's History of Greece, Leighton's History of Rome, Green's Short History of the English People, and the 'Student's' History of France.

"Once a week a meeting of the class is held, at which the instructor comments upon current events, *i. e.*, upon the important news of the week. Attendance at this meeting is entirely voluntary.

"Advanced lecture courses have not as yet been organized; but advanced work of a very thorough sort has been done by the two fellows in history, so far appointed, and by one other graduate student. The

instructor guides this work and exercises a constant critical oversight of it. The topics taken up so far have been: The growth of Federal prerogative traceable in the decisions of the Supreme Court; the past and present colonial policy of Great Britain (studied from the contemporaneous sources of each period); Roman influences traceable in the institutions and laws of modern Europe; race elements of the modern European nations.

"The library facilities here are limited, so far as the college's own library is concerned, because that library is now only a year and a half from its first purchase of books; but the libraries of Philadelphia, which are easily available, are very full of excellent materials on most topics in English and American history, and very free use has been made of them for advanced work."



BRYN MAWR COLLEGE LIBRARY—BRYN MAWR, PA.

CHAPTER VIII.

AMERICAN HISTORY IN SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, AND UNIVERSITIES.¹

BY FRANCIS NEWTON THORPE, PH. D.,

Fellow of the University of Pennsylvania.

When the people of the United States realized that they were a nation, they began to study their own history. Lincoln, speaking to a generation in arms for this nationality, said, "We are making history very fast." Before the war, our history was little studied in the West; in the East and the South attention was chiefly given to colonial and local history. But during the national and international changes incident to the events of 1865, our history assumed a character of its own; and the study of it was begun in a few higher institutions of learning. The nation had begun a new era, production was stimulated, interstate commerce was fostered, immigration was encouraged, States were founded, hostile institutions were swept away, inventions in the arts, in the sciences, in the means of enjoying life were perfected. The whole country became intensely active in the promotion of every interest, and material progress was phenomenal. The effect continues to this day; it is seen on every hand—in the life at the university, in the noisy life of the street. Our national life and our individual lives, show, both practically and sentimentally, the effects of that mighty convulsion in the state which, a quarter of a century ago, ended the old era and ushered in the new.

The Nation is a moral person; its history is that of organic development. We are not first nor last; we come in the moral order of the world. There is, in the process of history, "an organic unity of the Divine idea; and it holds a purpose in and through, and uniting the ages.

* * * Thus it has been said, 'The history of the world cannot be understood apart from the government of the world.'

Bancroft and Hildredth are our historians, but our history is yet to be written. The revival of historical studies in our generation is a step toward that consummation—the production of a complete history of

¹ An article on "Instruction in American History," by Professor William F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin, is to be found in the Wisconsin Journal of Education, vol. 4, No. 10 (October 10, 1874). Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart's paper on "Methods of Teaching American History" also deserves attention. It is published in Vol. I of the Pedagogical Library, edited by G. Stanley Hall, and published by D. C. Heath, Boston, 1885.—H. B. A.

America. Documentary history is tedious; statistics are not men in action; the record of the pulse is not the pulse. Politics, as commonly understood, forms only a part of our interests; we have neglected the study of our institutions. With what delight the history of the people of the United States by John McMaster has been read by his countrymen, yet its original material was long neglected by historians. The study of American economics has changed our historical perspective, and material once considered useless has risen to great historical value. Our varied American life demands not merely some new thing, but things; like Bacon, we seek for "fruit." Economics is a general expression, in the vocabulary of affairs, for the causes of the wealth of nations. As a science it treats of man as a political being, and considers him in his relations to men and to things; our economic history, commonly called "industrial," is as old as our political or our financial history, but it is not so well understood.

REVIVAL OF HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL STUDIES.

Perhaps the best indication of the revival of economical and historical studies from the dead past of speculation and rumor is the founding, recently, of the American Economic Association, and the revival of the American Historical Association; the one, an association of the younger and many of the older economists of the country, purposing to base doctrine upon facts, and facts upon scientific investigation of economic elements; the other, similarly composed of men, young and old, whose object in association is "the promotion of historical studies," with a spirit active, creative, and national.

Economics and history are two friends who arm in arm walk in the same path, the highway of the nation. It may be said that these two studies, history and economics, are important ones in the education of every American youth; when they teach the whole truth they mirror the life of the nation. As the nation ages, its opinions concerning itself change. It desires to view itself from every point; it seeks to know its daily life, its institutions, their nature and their origin. To history and economics must be added biology as the third study of our day, and the methods of investigation in each of these are the same in principle—the study of life in action.

DEFECTS OF HISTORICAL INSTRUCTION IN OUR SCHOOLS.

In most public schools, and in more than two hundred and fifty of our colleges, the study of American history is confined to the study of a text-book. This has gone so far in our public schools that text-books, pushed into the schools by energetic publishers, have maintained their place, though later and better books are now obtainable. An examination of the ordinary book of American history shows that about one-third of the volume is devoted to pictures, about two-thirds of the text to American history before 1789, and the remainder to the history

of the United States; few maps are inserted, and these are too often so inaccurate as to be useless. In this brief treatment of the history of the nation social history is omitted; the text is the chronology of politics. In the public schools American history is not taught, on the average, above five recitations a week, thirty minutes being the time for a lesson, and the total amount of this study averages not over six months in the school-life of the child. In some town and city schools it is pursued by a few pupils in the high schools for one year, but this is usually in connection with the general history course. There are no special teachers of American institutions in American public schools. In these schools the prevailing method of instruction is as follows: The teacher assigns a fixed number of pages in the text-book to be memorized; pupils repeat the text in recitation; they are examined in the text, and the subject is dropped—usually willingly. This method prevails in large cities and in crowded schools, and is the *sine qua non* of every teacher who is compelled to hear lessons which he does not understand. It does not permit the use of different texts, because the teacher is required to get his pupils past a dreaded examination; for if a certain minimum is not passed, the school board employs a new teacher to hear lessons. The result is that thousands pass from these schools with a brief mental incumbrance of names, dates, and isolated events. In later life this baggage proves valueless and is cast away, and the man knows that the public school did him very little good when it tried to teach him American history. In some public schools no text-book is used; the teacher talks and pupils take notes. The teacher, not being a special student of history, talks text-book on a small scale. The notes of pupils are disconnected statements swept together into a “table,” which is memorized. The recitation is “the story” after the teacher, with unique variations by the child; the text-book abridges the larger work, the teacher abbreviates the text-book, and the child abbreviates the teacher. The results are a meager amount of disconnected facts memorized by the pupil for a brief time, and in later life the man is painfully conscious of his ignorance of American history.

Few public schools have libraries, and fewer a collection of historical books. Among them there is rarely a single book for reference in American history. Some teachers at times read to their classes selections from standard writers. This is unusual; time and the course forbid it. The extract is only the expansion of a single line, and other lines are equally important. In rare instances the teacher, though not specially trained in history, is fond of it, and is then in danger of public criticism for not preferring arithmetic. He gathers a few war histories, biographies, and text-books sent him by careful publishers, and with these not ineffective tools he succeeds in teaching a few facts, though the principal one is that the books do not agree.

In some schools—and they are few in number—whose classes have access to libraries, public or private, the teacher prescribes readings from standard authors. Pupils report these orally or by brief quotations or digests of authors read. Usually there are not enough copies of the prescribed books in the library for each member of the class. Thus the reading is done by a few who take special interest. Sometimes to avoid this the class is divided into committees that work up separate subjects and report results to the entire class. At stated times the teacher meets his class, and the results are worked together into a whole. The work is supplemented by the teacher with informal lectures. This is the first step in our preparatory schools toward the historical seminary. Children who are thus taught acquire a few ideas of American history which will stand the test of truth and the trial of time. In later life it proves to have been an intelligent introduction to a knowledge of American institutions.

These three methods, the text-book, the “story,” and the seminary,—represent the methods now in use in our preparatory schools. Incidental to them, but found only in the third, are class debates; reading of historical tales and poems; making maps in clay relief, or on paper in colors; collecting relics and curiosities; seeing plays acted; visiting museums and places of historic interest, and hearing lectures pertaining to the subject.

Of the pupils in the public schools 80 per cent. never reach the high school and 95 per cent. never reach college. Of those who enter college more than 25 per cent. never take a degree, and usually drop out before the junior year. After a somewhat careful examination of the subject the conclusion is forced upon one that in these schools for elementary instruction the study of American history, as at present conducted, is, with few exceptions, time wasted, money wasted, energy wasted, history perverted, and intelligent elementary knowledge of the subject prevented. It is merely mechanical, and is such a manufacturing of opinion out of books that it is productive only of aversion to calm, unprejudiced examination of economic and historical questions daily arising in national life. We are sensitive on the subject of our public schools. They are “the people’s university.” We boast of them to foreigners and neglect them ourselves. Education is yet an affair of brick and mortar. Teachers and scholars are provided with buildings, often costly and elegant in design, but usually lacking every kind of apparatus for the prosecution of the work of education. The little teaching of American history in them is too often of a petty political nature, a mere brief of elections, administrations, wars, and victories. But the real life of the people, as it is or has been, is not taught. The children know as little of the development of our institutions when they leave school as do the inhabitants of Lapland. The assertion that man is a political being is a plain statement, to most people, during a Presidential campaign; but that men are political beings when no elec-

tion is at hand means nothing to them. When it is known that our school population is 16,243,832, of which only 6,118,331 are in actual daily attendance; that among 293,294 public teachers not one is for American institutions; that the children of the country remain in school, on an average, not over three years and a half; that only about one-fifth of those in the preparatory schools reach the high schools, only one-sixth the college; that only one-fourth of this number complete a college course; that 60 per cent. of the pupils in our schools are girls; that boys leave the school before they are eighteen years of age, and seldom attend school afterwards, the question becomes an important one whether our system of public education does what it ought to teach the children of the nation the history of our institutions to the end that the generation in the schools may become citizens and voters of intelligence.

It is said by some that the incidental instruction from newspapers, magazines, books, lectures, sermons, and conversation is enough for training in citizenship. An answer to this is that technical instruction is the only instruction that counts in this world; general information has little, if any, value compared with it; everything about something, not something about everything, has been said, with much truth, to be the *desideratum* in education. The tendency of the educational work of to-day is toward specialization. This may be our vast error, but it is our vast effort.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT.

In our public schools American history should not be so taught as to load the memory of children with the barren records of elections, defeats, and martial deeds. Every American who becomes a true citizen enters upon responsibilities which he should have the privilege of studying before assuming. This is the just claim for American history as a study in the public school. That study should be at first chiefly geographical and sociological. The child should be able to see from consecutive maps how the nation has grown and has spread its power over this continent; he should be taught the social development of this people; how they have founded States, built highways, railroads, canals, steamship lines; how our commerce has grown and why it has grown; what we require to support ourselves, and where and how we raise it; what is the nature of our manufactures, and what the relations between employer and employé. Above all, the child should be taught the homely facts of history as they are about him. The village is the first subject for study; then the township, the city, the county, the State, the Nation. It is a just criticism, that in the public schools we learned nothing of this; we learned nothing of the nature of the ordinary civil offices.

A child of ten years can understand the nature of the duties of auditor, assessor, tax-collector, councilman, mayor, and of other local

officers. In every locality he may gather material for local history, and thus form a foundation for the study of the community, the county, and the State. If all who attempt to instruct in American history could understand that our history exists outside of Washington and State capitals, and teach what children most need knowledge of, developing in their minds by natural methods adapted to the child the history of the nation—historical knowledge would be a power of which the child in later life would be thankfully conscious. Pupils in history should be taught to make historical maps. A series of these maps, made to show the changes in America at intervals of ten years, from the discovery of the continent to the present time, if drawn, or at least colored by the pupil, will impress upon him certain historical lessons that will remain with him. The maps found in the last census of the United States are the best authority easily accessible. Outline physical maps of the country may be drawn by the pupil or obtained from publishers. These outline maps should not show other than physical features, nor necessarily show present State boundaries; the pupil will arrive at present boundaries as he proceeds in his historical constructions.

HISTORICAL REQUIREMENTS FOR ENTRANCE TO COLLEGE.

The introduction of the study of American history into the public schools resulted in the requirement of some knowledge of it from those coming up to college. The book usually designated by the faculty is one of "essentials," which the boy, by a process of mental cramming peculiar to candidates, carries loosely in his memory till he has unloaded himself in an entrance examination. If he fails, he is not conditioned, because there is no way of removing the condition; if he passes, he straightway forgets his information, and usually never takes American history again. A condition in ancient or in modern European history is a reality, and can only be removed by such systematic coaching as will satisfy a learned professor. The boy entering college is not obliged to know the outlines of the history of his own country, but he is obliged to know the outlines of Greek and Roman history. The reasons for examining a boy in ancient history for admission to college apply equally to American history; there should be an intelligent study of our own history in our public schools, in our college preparatory schools, and an examination, that is not a fiction, for entrance into college.

Of the two hundred and sixty-five colleges and universities in this country the universities of Yale, Cornell, and Pennsylvania have chairs in American history; the professorships at Cornell and at Yale are endowed; at Harvard are special courses in American history, and at Wisconsin a special instructor in this subject has recently been appointed. Johns Hopkins, Columbia, and Michigan also provide courses in American history for undergraduates and post-graduates.

AMERICAN HISTORY AT YALE.

At Yale the yearly courses for undergraduates are open to and are taken by both juniors and seniors uniting in the same exercises. The work of the first term of the year is in colonial history to 1765, Lodge's Short History being used as the basis for work. The exercises are mixed recitation and lecture; the rest of the year is given to the next century. No text-book is used, but printed lists of topics for each exercise, with an appended detailed list of authorities to be consulted, are distributed. Means are provided for a ready use by all the class of these sources of information in a reserved alcove in the library. The work with graduates is not systematized but is individualized, the professor of American history meeting with students once or twice a week through the year for discussions and reports on selected themes. He also marks out and supervises courses of reading, and directs students in the investigation of special topics and in the preparation of theses (course given by Professor F. B. Dexter). Lectures on the financial and the political history of the United States are open to juniors, seniors, and graduates (by Professor W. G. Sumner). This course consists in an effort to teach political science and finance historically, using the history of the United States as a text. The members of the class are supposed to be well acquainted with the civil history. They are required to read standard works on the history and to examine some original authorities. They also have to write theses, and a number of subjects are proposed to them, from amongst which they make selections for special investigation. In the lectures are included, *inter alia*, the industrial history, history of the currency, tariff, banking, public finance, politics, and political economy, *i. e.*, economic opinion. The economic lectures on American history divide it in alternate years between the period from 1789 to 1820, and the period from 1820 to 1880. The law department provides courses in American constitutional law, historically considered.

To the study of the principles of public finance the course at Yale devotes one hour a week through the year; this course treats of the income and expenditures of Government, discussing such leading topics as, the budget, taxation (national and local), public debts and State banks considered as aids to public credit. (Prof. H. W. Farnam.)

The course in railroad administration deals with railroad expenditures and receipts, the methods of railroad accounting, railroad rates, discrimination and its effects upon the community, the various methods of legislative control and their results. One hour a week, for half a year, is given to the study of industrial legislation, the course dealing (*inter alia*) with specific legislation concerning corporations and other associations, factories, transportation, and public safety and health in their industrial bearings. (Prof. A. T. Hadley.)

One hour a week, half a year, is given to the study of local government in the United States, discussing the legal functions of cities,

towns, counties, and other municipal corporations and quasi corporations, with an examination of the practical working of their governmental machinery. (Mr. H. C. White.)

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

The University of Wisconsin in 1880 made American history a required study. The whole amount of history, required and elective, for the year occupies six hundred and nine hours, and one hundred and eight hours of this time is given to American history. (Prof. W. F. Allen.) One term and part of another, in all sixty-five hours, are devoted to the American Constitution. Two half terms of applications of political economy, and a half term of international law are largely given to the teaching of American affairs. American history is principally studied by topics, and large use is made of original authorities, of which the University has the best collection west of the Alleghany Mountains. It is the opinion in Wisconsin that the preparatory schools prepare students as well in American history as in Latin or mathematics. There is no regular historical seminary, but special students have from time to time pursued special lines of investigation in the local history of Wisconsin. This year the University has taken a step towards making American history an independent department, by requiring it in the Freshman year of the newly established "English" course, and by appointing a special instructor. The number in the class taking American history has doubled since this change was made.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

At Columbia American history is pursued as an elective by the seniors for four hours a week for six months, and by post-graduates for three hours a week for one year. The work is by means of lectures, the use of texts (von Holst and Bancroft), original documents, such as legislative records, executive reports, legal reports, both State and national, memoirs, pamphlets, newspapers, and standard authors, all of which aid in seminary work. "After the causal nexus has been established," says Professor Burgess, "we endeavor to teach students to look for the institutions and ideas which have been developed through the sequence of events in the civilization of an age or people. This I might term the ultimate object of our entire method of historical instruction. With us history is the chief preparation for the study of the legal and political sciences; through it we seek to find the origin, follow the growth, and learn the meaning of our legal, political, and economic principles and institutions."

In addition to the courses (given by Prof. J. W. Burgess) at Columbia, above outlined, the seniors of the School of Arts and the first-year men of the School of Political Science have four hours a week in lectures in American economic history and allied subjects. Included in this course (by Professor Smith) are, a history of tariffs in the United

States; a history of American banking, taxation, money, public indebtedness, and public credit. There is also a course, two hours a week through the year, on the history of political economy, in which especial attention is given to the financial doctrines of the Revolution; the work of Franklin, Hamilton, Gallatin; to the economic doctrines from 1776 to the present time as expounded in Congress; to the writings of Cooper, Raguett, Carey, and his school; to the controversies on the national bank and the discussion of the war finances, and to the financial history of the last ten years, and the work of the modern school. In treating of theoretic discussions the opportunity is taken to illustrate freely by contemporaneous events, and thus these lectures treat of the historic development of the land question, of the currency, of the labor question, the tariff, &c., in their various stages. For three hours a week, half a year, continues a course on railroad problems, dealing chiefly with American affairs. This course treats of the development of roads and water-ways; of canals and navigable streams, from the Revolution onward; the genesis of the railway system, and its growth from 1830 to 1850; the formation of trunk-lines; the granger movement; the growth of "pools" and traffic associations to the present; freights and fares and railroad legislation; State commissioners and their work, and State and Congressional investigations and their results. The instruction in all the courses is by lectures. Students are referred to the original authorities, all of which are kept in the college library, or which are purchased as soon as demanded. Opportunities are afforded for special research in a room reserved for political science, and a complete presentation of current publications is at hand. In the seminary of political science attention is paid to American economic history; a prize of \$150 is awarded to the best original thesis in economics, and American topics are often chosen. Another prize is offered in American history and the subject (this year) is in American economic history. Four annual fellowships (soon to be increased to eight), of the value of \$250 each, are awarded to students in the school of political science, and the theses of the students have in most cases been in some subject of American constitutional or economic history. (Dr. E. R. A. Seligman.)

In the Columbia College Law School are given courses devoted to the exposition of the Constitution of the United States, historically and legally considered.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

At Cornell American history is elective as a five-hour-per-week study during the junior and senior years. Besides the use of such texts as Von Holst, lectures are given and original documents are consulted. The topics to which particular attention is paid are: The Mound-builders and the North American Indians; the Alleged Pre-Columbian Discoveries; the Origin and Enforcement of England's

Claim to North America as against Competing Nations; the Motives and Methods of English Colony-planting in America in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries; the Development of Ideas and Institutions in American Colonies, with particular reference to Religion, Education, Industry, and Civil Freedom; the Grounds of Intercolonial Isolation and of Intercolonial Fellowship; the Causes and Progress of the Movement for Colonial Independence; the History of the Formation of the National Constitution; the History of Slavery as a Factor in American Politics, culminating in the Civil War of 1861-'65. "In the presentation of these topics the student is constantly directed to the original sources of information concerning them and to the true methods of historical inquiry." At Cornell special attention is given to American literature as an element in American history. Students have access to original sources of all kinds; and, as at Columbia and Johns Hopkins, the number who elect this subject is increasing year by year. The Goldwin Smith fellowship, in history and political science, affords opportunity for special work.

A subject receiving careful and elaborate attention at Cornell is our civil service, with the efforts that have been made to improve it. Among the courses in political economy is one giving careful study to unsettled problems in that science, including not only a history of the tariff but also of the different financial methods adopted by Hamilton, Gallatin, Chase, and others. This course involves an examination of the original documents in which the policies of these statesmen were outlined. A course in systematic politics gives an analysis of the characteristics of our Government as indicated in the Constitution, in the discussions of the constitutional convention of 1787, and in the *Federalist*. It is of interest to know that the library of Cornell has made a unique and valuable collection illustrative of the history of anti-slavery, having as a nucleus the library gathered together by the late Rev. Samuel J. May, of Syracuse.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

At Johns Hopkins courses in American history are offered as preparatory to the legal, editorial, or academic professions, or for the public service and the duties of citizenship. There is an undergraduate course, three hours weekly, during the second half of the third year. The constitutional history of the colonial and Revolutionary periods, together with the formation and adoption of the present Constitution, is first studied; then a brief series of lectures is devoted to the interpretation of the Constitution; the constitutional, and to some extent, the political history of the period, from that time until the close of the period of reconstruction, is then taken up; the course concludes with a series of lectures descriptive of the actual present form of the Government of the United States, the government of the States, and of municipal and local institutions. In the graduate course is the work of the seminary in

American history and economics. Only graduate students connected with the University are received as members of the seminary. The work of this co-operative organization of teachers and instructors in the department of history and political science is chiefly devoted to original research in the fields of American institutions and American economics. The exercises of the seminary, which occupy two hours each week, consist of oral and written reports of progress, discussions of these, and historical reviews. The work of this seminary, which was a new departure in the educational history of American institutions of learning, finds its way into magazines and constitutes the five volumes of *Studies in Historical and Political Science*, published by the University. These are now widely and favorably known, and have exercised a great influence in the revival of historical studies in this country. Of the twenty fellowships founded at Johns Hopkins two are usually in history, and several of the fellows have worked almost exclusively in American history and have published monographs of singular value.

Each course in political economy at Johns Hopkins may be regarded as a course of instruction in the economic institutions and economic history of the United States. This instruction extends through four years. The first year is undergraduate work five hours a week. The aim of this course is to familiarize the students with the elements of economics and finance, and the social, financial, and industrial history of the United States is used freely for purposes of illustration. Each student is also required to prepare two papers from twenty to forty-five minutes in length, and very often on American topics. Among those assigned this year are tariff legislation in the United States; internal revenue system of the United States; the income tax; paper money; communistic experiments in the United States; the clearing house; independent treasury system; building associations in Baltimore; corporations. Original work is not expected from undergraduates. The graduate courses cover three years, and are altogether equivalent to eight hours a week throughout one year; with the undergraduate course included, they are equivalent to thirteen hours a week throughout one year. One course, called "Advanced Political Economy," proceeds from a discussion of fundamental principles of economics, practical American problems, like railways, tariffs, co-operation, partnerships, corporations, immigration, strikes, &c. These are considered historically as well as critically. This extends through one year, three hours a week. A similar course is called "Finance and Taxation," and takes up money, banking, and taxation, with special reference to taxation in the States and cities of the American Union. It concludes with a sketch of the financial history of the United States. The third course, once a week for a year, is in the "History of Political Economy," American political economy included. The fourth graduate course, once a week for a year, is on commerce in modern times, and includes an historical sketch of American commerce. It is the intention that the graduate courses shall

lead to original investigation by those who pursue them. The "Seminary," which is devoted to economics as well as to politics and history, is two hours a week for the year. Adding weekly lectures in administration and statistics, the total amount of time devoted to economics is equivalent to sixteen hours a week for one year.

The Johns Hopkins University may claim the historic honor of developing the seminary method along lines of original research in American history. That is now the method in each of the leading universities in the country. It is essentially the methods of biology applied to history. From this it has followed that history, as a university study, has had in our day its renaissance in this country

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

At the University of Michigan the course in American History is as follows: First semester—Constitutional history of the United States, two hours a week; American constitutional law, one hour a week; taxation (Economic History), two hours a week. Second semester—Historical seminary, two hours a week; constitutional history and constitutional law of the United States, two hours a week. Total for the year, four and one-half hours a week through the year. There are no fellowships in history, nor special scholarships for students in history. "The greater part of our historical work," says Professor Hudson, "is done by lectures. In some lecture courses a short time is taken up each hour in questioning students upon the preceding lecture; in others, an hour a week is devoted to questioning students on the lectures of the week, or upon lectures and text-books." Critical use is made of original documents, which are freely accessible to historical students. It was at Michigan that the historical seminary was first practically introduced in this country by Professor C. K. Adams, now President of Cornell University. The principal text-book at Michigan is Von Holst, and in this place it is proper to mention that Von Holst dedicates his great work to Judge Cooley, until 1887 professor of history at Michigan.

It is the opinion at Michigan that the teaching of American History in preparatory schools is no doubt inferior to the instruction in Latin and mathematics; but the prospect of improvement in this preparatory work is encouraging.

The courses in American history in many American colleges are only a continuation of the methods of the public schools with the Constitution of the United States as a text. It will be found that American History for one term of fourteen weeks one hour a week is the usual course in the colleges. The president of the college not infrequently gives a short course of lectures on the Constitution of the United States in connection with instruction in civil government. A manual of the Constitution furnishes the text and a few historical notes. In these same colleges are courses in general history, or at least one course in history,

that of Greece or Rome, which engage the student for one term. At the great universities and better colleges only is there anything approaching a course in American History and Economics. The poorer colleges are providing little more than the city high schools in American History, and almost nothing in political economy.

RUTGERS COLLEGE.

Prof. Austin Scott, at Rutgers College, provides in the junior year a course in American history three hours a week on the American Constitution. In the senior year political economy, with special reference to American questions, is taken five hours a week for one term. At the same time constitutional law is given two hours a week. The method employed is that of the Historical Seminary. An entrance examination in American History is required. Rutgers has one of the very best college courses in history that this country affords.¹

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY.

At Syracuse University the sophomores are required to take American History two hours a week for one term; the seniors have American constitutional law three hours a week for one term, and in addition are given a course of twelve lectures on the American Revolution. There is also a special post-graduate course in American History, which requires two years, and which is partially outlined in a printed circular.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

At the University of Pennsylvania the sophomore class devotes two hours a week for one year to Pennsylvania history; colonial and State, political and economic. Intercolonial affairs are investigated.

The Wharton School of Finance and Economy provides special courses in American history and economics. The course in American History, in this college of the University, covers two years, and is in charge of the historian, John Bach McMaster. The Wharton School aims to give a thorough general and professional training to young men who intend to engage in business, or upon whom will devolve the management of property, or to persons who are preparing for the legal profession, for journalism, for an academic career, or for the public service. The course in American History in this school covers two years, the junior and the senior—three hours each week for the former and four each week for the latter during the entire academic year. In the junior year the first few weeks are spent in a cursory review of colonial history (Schouler's His-

¹ Many superior colleges and institutions, not mentioned by Doctor Thorpe, or described in this report, have excellent courses in American history; for example, Princeton, Amherst, Brown University, the University of Rochester, and some of the State universities and better colleges of the West and South. The statistical tables at the end of this report show clearly the standing of History in all the institutions of collegiate grade whose returns were received by the Bureau of Education.—H. B. A.

tory), in the study of colonial charters, and such documents as Coxe, or Franklin's plan of union, the stamp act, declaration of rights, non-importation agreement, &c. Three historical maps are required, viz, maps in color, showing the changes in colonial boundaries in 1700, 1750, and 1763. Essays are read by the students on such subjects as the French settlement in America, the discovery and exploration of the Mississippi, the French and Indian war, the navigation act, &c. About the first of December the class is divided into a number of committees, corresponding to the division into committees in Congress—such as Foreign Affairs, Indian Affairs, Commerce and Trade, Finance, Territories, Interstate Commerce, Army and Navy, Banks and Banking, &c., and each member of the class is put on several committees.

This done, Johnston's American Politics is made the text-book, and the work of lecturing begins. On certain days, in lieu of a lecture, the committees are called upon to present reports on the subjects already discussed. If the matter of "assumption" were the subject of the lecture, the Finance Committee would be called on to read a detailed report, which is discussed and cyclostyled, after which a copy is given to each member of the class. If the ordinance of 1787, or the land cessions were to be discussed, the Committee on Territories would report. These reports become matter of recitation. On the morning after each lecture the students hand in a synopsis of it, and once a week their note-books for examination. Ten maps, one for each census year, are required. These are water-color maps made by the students, and they show changes in population, disputed boundaries, acquired territories, immigrant routes and settlements, early railways, canals, and public highways, &c. They are historical maps of an economic character. With the seniors the course opens with a review of all State constitutions from 1776 to 1787. Recitations are held in Bancroft's History of the Constitution. Each member of the class makes a digest of the report of the constitutional convention of 1787 and of the Federalist. There are two lectures and two recitations a week. Digests are also required of the following: Letters of Pacificus, Letters of Helvidius, Jay's Treaty, the Defence of Camillus, the House Debate on Jay's Treaty, Blount's Impeachment, Nullification, 1798-'99, 1832, the Hartford Convention, the Constitutionality of National Banks, of Internal Improvement, of Protective Tariffs, of the Missouri Compromise, &c. (Course given by Professor J. B. McMaster).

The chief work of this class is the preparation of papers from time to time from original authorities on the leading questions that have come before the American people. The post-graduate courses cover two years, with no limit of hours, in American History, and, in 1885, the University founded six fellowships, known as the Wharton fellowships, in American History and Economics. As at Harvard, Yale, and Columbia, courses of lectures in American constitutional law are open in the law department to special and graduate students in American History. The

feature of the work at Pennsylvania is the high place given to the study of original authorities over formal histories; these latter are considered at their true value, but students are required to consult original papers when possible rather than these histories. By original documents are meant the annals, debates, records, journals, reports, and publications of Congress; judicial reports, both State and Federal; pamphlets, newspapers, executive documents, and texts of treaties. More time is given to the study of American History and Economics at Pennsylvania than at any other university in this country.

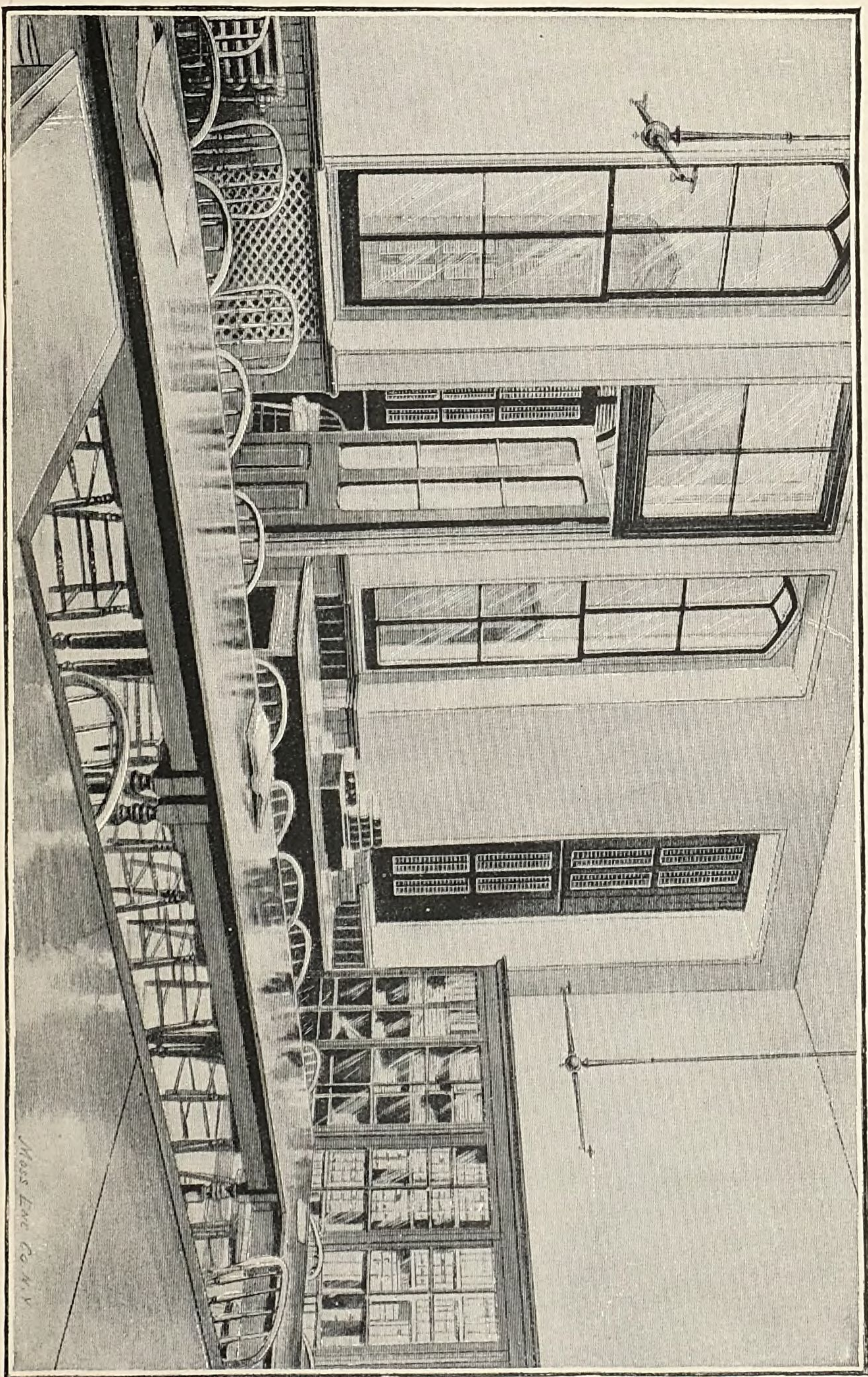
Besides the work above indicated there are courses in American Institutional History, in American Financial History, and in American Economics through the year. The various courses illustrative of American affairs are arranged so as to supplement each the other without duplication of work. All the work in American History and Economics, exclusive of the post-graduate courses and the lectures in American constitutional law in the law department, covers twenty-one hours per week for one year.

At Pennsylvania American History and Economics are required studies, but the results both at Harvard and at Pennsylvania show that the courses in the two universities proceed according to principles common to both. The methods of procedure and the canons of historical criticism and interpretation are the same.

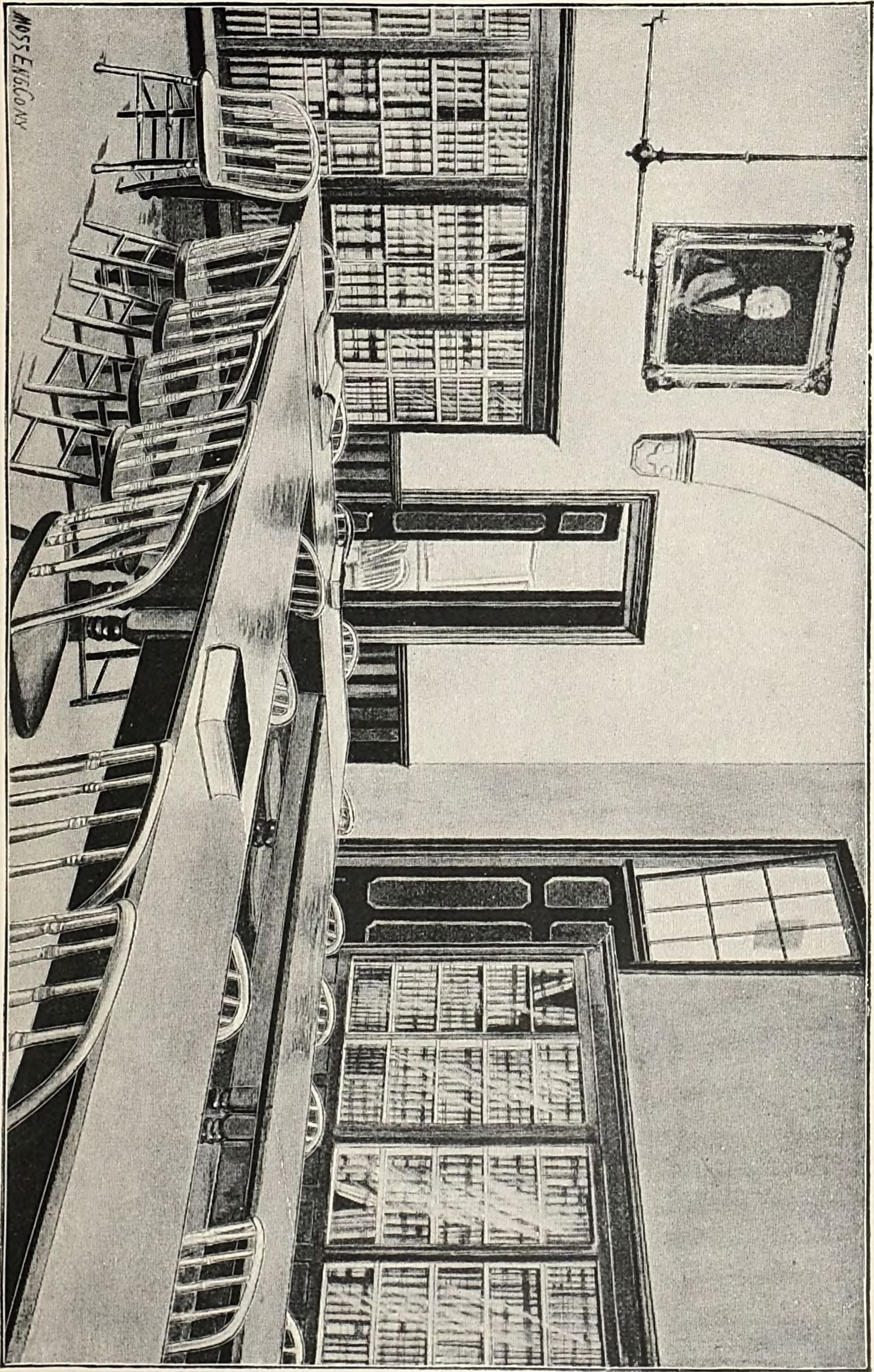
In the Wharton School is a course given by Professor Robert Ellis Thompson in economic science, equal to a course of three hours a week for one year, but distributed over two years. Lectures and the text-book method are combined. The topics considered are, *inter alia*, the theory of the state, socialism, communism, charity, considered specially in their economic aspect and as touching upon American affairs. The work of the second year is confined to the senior class in the Wharton School, and is a combination of lectures, discussions, and original investigations under the direction of the professor. It is especially occupied with American topics, such as the industrial history of the country from its first settlement, its land system and its administration of the public domain, the influence of economic causes in producing the War of Independence, the fiscal and financial policy that grew out of that war, and the change of policy in the subsequent century. Each of our great industries is taken separately and traced historically and statistically, not less the agricultural than the commercial and manufacturing. The problems of economic policy presented by our Treasury, money, and banking systems, by the creation of an artisan class since the war of 1812, by the growth of a public debt, by the relation of local government to general government, by immigration and the growth of cities, and by the formation of great routes of transportation, are treated. Three essays a week are required from the class on topics assigned, and discussion follows the reading of the essay. When the subjects are assigned the essayists are referred to the best books in the valuable libra-

ries of economic literature given the university by Stephen Colwell and by Henry C. Carey, and to more recent collections in the Wharton School library. Also, they are referred, if this be possible, to some local representative of the industry or interest treated in the essay, or are required to put themselves in communication by letter with such as are at a distance. The purpose is to train men who shall be "in touch" with the actual life of the industrial community in which we live, and who shall know their own country in its past and present with as much thoroughness as the limitation of a college course permits. The instruction given by other professors in the Wharton School in special courses enables the students to enter upon the courses in economic science with adequate preliminary knowledge for the understanding and appreciation of the course.

The course by Professor E. J. James on civil government in the United States given at the University of Pennsylvania runs through two years, and is the equivalent of four exercises per week for one year. It is divided into two parts, the first treating of the organs and the second of the functions of government. In the first part is given a somewhat detailed description of the organs (1) of the Federal Government; (2) of the State governments; (3) of the county, town, and other forms of local government. It treats of the President, Senate, House, judiciary, departments, bureaus, commissions which constitute the central government; of the governor, assembly, courts, commissions, sheriffs, councils, boards of directors, &c., which make up the State, county, town, and city governments. The second part begins with a classification of the functions of government in general, and then discusses the distribution of these functions among the different branches of our form of government. The relation of the Government (*a*) to the personal relations of the people, such as marriage, migration, citizenship, poor laws, &c.; (*b*) to the intellectual and moral relations, such as education in all its branches, elementary, secondary, higher, professional, technical; (*c*) to the economic relations, such as transportation, exchange, agriculture, mining, manufacturing, &c., is treated as fully as time and opportunity will permit. The method is comparative, historical, critical. The actual form of the government is first described, then its origin and development are traced. Our present systems are compared with previous systems in our own and in other countries. The whole is concluded with some attempt to estimate the comparative excellence of our system, pointing out its obvious advantages and its defects, with suggestions as to how the former may be increased and the latter remedied. The lecture system is combined with text-book and recitation system, supplemented by the application of the seminary method in the case of the older and more advanced students. The object is to become fully acquainted with our American system of government in its actual workings, to learn the facts connected with its origin and development, and to grasp the spirit and genius of our insti-



LECTURE AND SEMINARY ROOM NO. 1—WHARTON SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.



LECTURE AND SEMINARY ROOM No. 2—WHARTON SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

tutions. As many of the subjects connected with this course are also treated in other courses in the University, care is taken to devote chief attention to those topics which are not otherwise discussed, so that there shall be no actual duplication of work. To the seniors is given a course, three hours a week for one year, on public finance, a large portion of which, say one-third, is devoted to the financial history of the United States, beginning with the financial policy of the Revolution and closing with the financial operations of late years. This course involves the discussion of the tariff, internal revenue, direct taxes, public lands, post-office, Mint, &c., so far as they have proved elements in the public revenue system of the country. It includes, also, a history of American theories on taxation and other sources of public income. Care is here taken to avoid duplication of instruction in the various courses. The work in the political science seminary is almost exclusively in connection with American subjects, as the following topics assigned during the year 1885-'86 for special study and investigation will show: System of convict labor in the United States; anti-rent riots in New York; taxation in Pennsylvania, in Massachusetts, in South Carolina; municipal finance in the United States; local government in the United States; city government of Philadelphia.

In order to offer to the students of the Wharton School the means of acquiring a more complete knowledge of American economics, courses covering four hours a week are also given through the year, in which systematic instruction is given by lectures, texts, essays, investigations, and discussions. The topics presented are, *inter alia*, the extent, nature, and ownership of the soil; mines, fisheries, transformation and transportation of products, and modes of exchange; banking, functions of middlemen, stocks, railroads, and railroad legislation; public grants by cities and towns; tariffs, pooling arrangements, and mercantile law and practice in the United States. (Prof. A. S. Bolles.)

Special courses of lectures are also given by graduates of the University, fellows of the University, and men in public life on subjects taken entirely from American History and Economics, such as Comparative State Constitutional Law (Dr. F. N. Thorpe), Taxation (J. C. Jones, esq.), and Methods of State Legislation. (Hon. Robert Adams, jr.)

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

The work in American history at Harvard, under Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart and Dr. Edward Channing, and at Pennsylvania, under the direction of the historian, John Bach McMaster, proceeds, to use the language of Von Ranke, "to tell just how things came about." History is the development of the life of the nation. It does not begin, as taught there, by assuming to know just how things came about; history is not forced into an empiricism; its own mirror it holds up to the organic life of the nation, and the historian and the student of history must tell of that life as he sees it, and not merely as he desires to see

it. The people is greater than the camp, and the mind of the people than the mind of its legislators. At Harvard and at Pennsylvania the student, as he pursues his course in American history, has put into his hands a set of outlines for his guidance; those by Dr. Hart are published; those by Professor McMaster are in manuscript. As an index to the work attempted in these two universities, we give a brief portion of the Harvard plan. It may be said to represent the best attempts now making in our schools in the study of American institutions, and is substantially an outline of the courses and the work at Columbia, Cornell, and Johns Hopkins.

At Harvard University history is taught by seven men, two of whom devote their strength to the teaching of American history; courses in American economics are also given by two other men. The courses in American history may be briefly described as follows:

(1) A course in English and American political institutions, designed as an introduction to later courses and devoted chiefly to American history. (Three hours a week for one-half year, Professor Macvane.)

(2) A course in American history to 1783, dealing especially with the institutional development of the colonies. (Three hours a week for the year, Dr. E. Channing.)

(3) A course devoted to the history of the United States from 1783 to 1861. (Three hours a week for the year, Dr. A. B. Hart.)

(4) A course devoted to the history of the United States from 1783 to 1861. (Three hours a week for the last half of the year, Dr. Hart.)

(5) A course designed for advanced students who are investigating the period from 1861 to the present time. (Three hours a week through the year, Dr. Hart.)

(6) A course in special research for advanced students, the subjects selected bearing on our territorial growth and our institutional history. (Three hours a week for the whole year, Dr. Channing.)

(7) The history of the tariff and financial legislation of the United States, two half courses counting as one full course. (Three hours a week through the year, Professor Dunbar; Assistant Professor Tausig.)

Each instructor conducts his own class as he deems best, and his students investigate such topics as seem desirable.

In the colonial course there are three lectures a week throughout the year. In these lectures it is intended to treat in considerable detail the more important topics, leaving the student to fill in the gaps. To enable him to do this, as well as to avoid a waste of time in copying in the class-room, a set of "Topics and references in American colonial history" is provided by the instructor and printed at the expense of the instructor and students. This is not designed to take the place of "Notes," nor is it an outline of the lectures or of the course. The object is merely to furnish the students with a brief bibliography of the more important books bearing on the subject of their year's work. It

is printed in sheets and distributed from time to time. It is not designed to be permanent, nor to be used from year to year, the instructor believing that it is better for the teacher to make his preparation fresh each year. It is not copyrighted and is not on sale. Its general scope is indicated by the following extract :

AMERICAN COLONIAL HISTORY.¹

SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA.

General references: Lodge, *English Colonies*, 1-8; Doyle, I, 144-209; "Bryant," I, 167-307; Cooke, *Virginia*, 13-112; G. Bancroft, *U. S.*, I, 85-110; Hildreth, *U. S.* I, 99-117; Higginson, *Larger History*, 137; Eggleston in *Century*, XXV, 61; and Marshall, *Colonial History*, 29-63.

1606. London and Plymouth Companies and their charter, *Charters*, 1888; Preston, *Documents*, 1.

1607. Jamestown settled. *Smith's True Relation*, 1-31.

1609. Second charter of Virginia. Preston, *Documents*, 14.

1611-'12. Third charter of Virginia. Preston, 22.

1607-'18. Further history of the colony.

Other references: *Nar. and Crit. Hist.*, III, 127-141; Smith, *General Historie*; Wingfield's discourse in *Archæologia Americana*, IV, 67-143; C. Campbell's *Virginia*, 35-131.

The students are expected to be familiar with two or three of the "general references," with all of the special references, and the "other references," while not required, will be useful to students who wish to attain distinction in the course or to stand for "honors." The lectures are devoted more especially to the elucidation of the important constitutional points as they arise. The origin and growth of the institutions of local government in the several colonies receive much attention, while the economic and social history of the colonies is examined in detail. The lectures are illustrated by maps drawn for the occasion by the instructor, the large outline maps published by Heath being used as a basis. The students are advised to copy the more important features so represented on smaller outline maps. In this way the good men get together a useful historical atlas. The examinations take up all points touched on in the lectures and in "topics and references." A question in geography involving the use of the small outline map is also asked at each examination. In addition each student is required to study during the year four problems and to report at length. These

¹ Harvard University makes the following requirements for admission :

Either (1) history of Greece and Rome, or (2) history of the United States and of England. For American history the following works serve to indicate the amount of knowledge demanded :

Higginson's *Young Folks' History of the United States* (to the end of chapter XXI), and Johnston's *History of the United States for Schools* (beginning at section 269).

The following selections are recommended for additional reading and will be made the basis of optional questions in the examination: For American history, Lodge's *English Colonies*, chapters II and XXII; Morse's *John Quincy Adams*, chapters II and III; Josiah Quincy's *Figures of the Past*. (From catalogue for 1887.)

reports, if up to the standard, are read in the class. The four problems are selected as follows: (1) a topic dealing with the exploration or settlement of the student's own town or State; (2) a topic drawn from the early history or government of New England, including, of course, the local government; (3) a question relating to the causes of the Revolution; and (4) a problem in the historical geography of the colonies. The leading original sources are put into the hands of the student, and he is required to base his report upon them. The instructor is in the library at a designated hour every day to give any proper assistance. In the research course each student has assigned to him a definite topic sufficiently broad to occupy one-fourth of his time for one academic year. As a rule, these topics are connected with the instructor's own work of research for the year. Each student meets the instructor once a week for consultation, and there is also each week a formal meeting of the whole course, at which students report progress. These meetings are strictly private, and are designed to encourage a critical spirit among the students. Towards the close of the academic year the reports presented by the students during the year are revised and combined in the shape of a thesis, which is rewritten until the instructor is satisfied with the form and language. The research course is open to graduates and undergraduates who have passed with distinction in one or both of the more general courses in American history. (The above work is directed by Dr. Channing.)

Dr. Hart's outline of the courses in Constitutional and Political History of the United States is prepared for the use of students in Harvard College and in the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women. The outline is an analysis of the subject, and indicates precisely the necessary reading for undergraduate or for advanced work.

The books cited are reserved in an alcove of the reading-room of the college library. The outline, covering the period from 1783 to 1829, makes a pamphlet of one hundred and twenty-eight pages. The first four pages explain the methods of the courses. Under the heading "special reports" the author says: "About one-fifth to one-fourth of the work of the courses will consist of 'special reports.' To each student, from time to time, will be assigned a very limited special topic, on which he is expected to make a condensed report, based upon original authorities. He is not required to use any but books to be found on the reserved shelves at the time the report is to be drawn up. The purpose of the system is to introduce students to a number of books, to accustom them to find out facts for themselves, to make them familiar with the sources of information on American history, to develop their powers of analysis, and to interest them in the unsettled questions of our history. Each report will require from four to six hours' time, and, in the course of the year, every student will have, besides others, one geographical or statistical question, and one question in bibliography."

The list of books desirable to own for the study of the history of the United States from 1783 to 1829 is given as follows:

- American Statesmen Series: Lives of Hamilton, Jefferson, Madison, John Adams, Gallatin, Monroe, Randolph, Marshall. 1775-1829.
 Bancroft's History of the Constitution, 2 vols.; also a student's edition of the same. 1781-1789.
 Curtis' History of the Constitution of the United States, 2 vols. 1774-1789.
 Higginson's larger History of the United States, 1 vol.
 Hildreth's History of the United States, 2d series, 3 vols. 1789-1821.
 McMaster's History of the People of the United States, Vols. I-XI. 1775-1832.
 Schouler's History of the United States, 3 vols. 1775-1831.
 Snow's Guide to the Study of the History of the United States. 1775-1850.
 Von Holst's Constitutional History of the United States, 5 vols. 1775-1856.
 American Commonwealth Series: California, Oregon, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan. 1775-1836.
 American Statesmen series: Lives of Webster, Clay, Jackson, John Quincy Adams. 1829-1861.
 Greeley's American Conflict, Vol. I. 1776-1862.
 Johnston's Half Century of American History. 1840-1886.

Dr. Hart has given us a digest of accessible authorities in the domain of American history. These authorities may be summed as follows: Personal reminiscences, such as letters, the works of statesmen, memoirs, and autobiographies. Unconscious authorities, such as travels, general literature, magazines, newspapers, and the publications of societies. Constitutional treatises, such as commentaries on the Constitution and criticisms by Americans and by foreigners; local histories, special histories, such as financial, military, political, literary, and economic histories; compilations, such as manuals and text-books; geographies, the census reports, and formal treatises of a sociological nature; official records of government, journals of legislative bodies, annals, debates, and records of Congress; public documents, Congressional reports, American state papers, Department publications; legal reports of decisions handed down both in the State and in the Federal courts; laws of the States and of the United States.

The Harvard course discusses the sources of American history; the preliminary conceptions of history; the basis of the United States; the lands, with maps; the people, with diagrams of changes in population; the political basis—the English constitution; the English control of the colonies; the English commercial system; local government with reference to Channing's Town and County Government (in Johns Hopkins University studies, II, No. 10). H. B. Adams' Germanic origin of New England towns (in Johns Hopkins University studies, I, No. 2). Frothingham's Rise of the Republic, 13-28.

The outline of Financial and Commercial Reorganization (1815-1824) is as follows:

- (1815-1817.) Financial and commercial reorganization; Elements; Lalor's Cyclopædia, I, 772-774; Von Holst, I, 382-384; Benton's Thirty Years' View, I, 1-6; Hildreth's United States, VI, 581-583; Sumner's Jackson, 40-42; Bolles' Financial History of the United States, II, 284-293; Snow's Guide, 67; Bibl. Dunbar's Topics in Political Economy, IV, p. 14.

1812-1815. The national finances.

Cost of the war.

Increase in public debt—diagram.

Foreign commerce.

Domestic trade.

American manufactures.

1815-1829. Internal improvements made by the States.

Attitude of parties and public men.

1815-1817. The West as a factor in legislation.

(1815-1822.) Financial Organization; The Bank; Sumner's American Currency, 68-79; Von Holst, I, 384-388; Bolles' Financial History, II, 278-282, 317-329; Schouler's United States, II, 446-452, III, 37-39, 109-121, 245-247; Hildreth, VI, 589-682; Lalor's Cyclopædia, II, 208-209; Sumner's Jackson, 230-233; Snow's Guide, 124-125; Lodge's Webster, 61-67; Von Holst's Calhoun, 31-33.

1811. Expiration of the old Bank.

1813. (1) Charter bill voted down. Hildreth, VI, 463.

1814. (2) Calhoun's Bill; Benton's abridgment, V, 171.

Campbell's finance.

Commercial crises.

1815. Jan. (3) Dallas's bill vetoed; Statesmen's Manual, I, 323.

Dec. (4) Dallas' new project; Niles' Register, IX, 261-366.

1816. Apr. 10. Bank act.

1817. Feb. 20. Resolution on paper money.

1815-1819. Improvement in the national finances.

1819-1821. Commercial crises.

1819. Feb. 1. Scire facias resolution; Hildreth, VI, 650-654.

1821-1822. Recovery of the bank.

After the same manner are outlined the policy of revenue tariffs, of the first protective tariff, of constitutional questions as to internal improvements, vetoes of internal improvement bills, &c.

These outlines are protected by copyright, and their usefulness will insure them wide adoption in this country. They are so comprehensive in their analysis of every period of our national history and present the bibliography of American history so conveniently that they cannot well be omitted from the library of every serious student of American affairs.

In addition to the special work in American History¹ at Harvard are several courses in economics in which the instruction is very largely in

¹ The revised course in American History at Harvard for 1887-'88 is as follows:

1. Introductory course in American and English Institutions, three hours per week for one-half year; chiefly freshmen and sophomores.

2. General course in the Elements of American History, three hours per week for half year; chiefly freshmen and sophomores.

3. American Colonial History to 1781, three hours per week for the year; chiefly juniors and seniors.

4. History of the United States, 1781-1861, three hours per week for the year, all classes; chiefly juniors and seniors.

5. American Financial History, two hours per week for half year; chiefly juniors and seniors.

6. History of Tariff Legislation, two hours per week for half year; chiefly juniors and seniors.

7. Seminar in selected topics in American and Modern European History, one hour's personal attention to each student per week.

American economics. There are also special courses in American constitutional studies, both in the college and in the law school. The course that treats of American topics covers two hours a week for one year, being, first, a course in the history of tariff legislation in the United States, and second, a course in the history of financial legislation in the United States; other courses in economics that are largely of American interest provide at least six hours per week, in addition to the above, for the year. The subjects considered in these courses are so many that only a few of them can be referred to here. The topics of peculiar interest to students of American affairs are, *inter alia*, Shipping Legislation, Coinage, Treaties with Canada, Commerce, the California Gold Excitement, the Economic Effects of the Civil War. The method of instruction is partly by the preparation of written reports, partly by oral discussion, and partly by lecture. The courses in economics are so closely allied to the courses in American history, yet independent of them, that any adequate statement of them would exceed the limits of this paper. The "Topics and References in Political Economy" at Harvard are after the same plan as Dr. Hart's "Outlines" and equally comprehensive, as Topic LXXV, in Course IV, page 40, shows:

LXXV.—SPECIE PAYMENTS AND THE REVIVAL OF INDUSTRY.

Professor Dunbar.

Resumption of specie payments by the United States apparently hopeless from 1868 to 1873.

Debate in Congress and passage of the compromise act of 1874. (Statutes at Large, XVIII, 123.)

Resumption act of 1875 passed as a party measure.

Provisions of the act. (Statutes at Large, XVIII, 296.)

Its weak points.

Refusal to explain the purpose of the act as to reissue of redeemed notes. (See Congressional Record for debate in Senate, December 22, 1874; or Sherman's speeches, 471.)

The act supposed to require supplementary legislation. (Finance Reports, 1875, XX; 1876, XIV; 1877, XIII.)

Its success secured by—

(1) Stagnation of business and fall of prices.

(2) Diminished imports and cheap gold.

(3) Increased demand for food.

Accumulation of gold by the Treasury. (Finance Reports, 1878, VIII; 1879, IX.)

Congress loses courage and stops the withdrawal of legal-tender notes. (U. S. Statutes at Large, XX, 87.)

Specie payments saved after resumption by continuance of European demand. (United States Statistical Abstract for 1883, 34-82.)

8. Seminar in the History of the United States since 1861, two hours per week and one-half hour's personal attention to each student each week.

In all the above courses, except the first, written reports of investigation are required at stated intervals. A student who takes all the courses offered in American History at Harvard will spend upon them one and a half years of his academic time.

The topic numbered XVIII, in Course VIII, is "Constitutionality of the Legal-Tender Issues," and the references:

Bolles, III, chapter I.

Knox, United States Notes, chapter XI.

Bancroft, A Plea for the Constitution.

For the decisions of the court, and dissenting opinions:

Hepburn *v.* Grisworld, 8 Wallace, 603; Banker's Magazine, March, 1870; Knox *v.* Lee, 12 Wallace, 457; Banker's Magazine, April, 1872; Juillard *v.* Greenman, 110 United States, 421; Knox, 193.

Madison's Notes, Elliot's Debates, V, 435.

Webster's Opinion, Works, IV, 270.

Gallatin's Opinion, Works, III, 235.

Secretary Chase's Letters, in Spaulding's Legal-Tender Paper, 27, 46, 59, &c.

The object of the financial courses is to give training in the use of debates, reports, and especially statutes—indeed, to train the student to the use of authorities rather than to the reading of a text-book. The old-fashioned text-book methods have disappeared from the great universities, and are only found in those college courses that are strictly elementary. The opportunities for graduate work in American history and economics at Harvard are numerous, rich, and attractive. The university, by the foundation of fellowships and scholarships, offers to its own graduates, and to those of other colleges, ample opportunities for the "attainment of a higher, broader, and more thorough scholarship in sound literature and learning." The system of electives at the university operates to the highest advantage of those who are pursuing such a specialty as American history, or who are pursuing it as a part of a general course. The class of students who from a large number select this subject will, *cæteris paribus*, bring to the study of it minds eager to know and spirits willing to be directed by eminent men. The elective system tends to the survival of the fittest.

GENERAL STATUS OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

Cambridge, Philadelphia, New York, and Baltimore, afford peculiar facilities for the study of American history. In the various libraries in these cities may be found the greater part of the authorities here outlined. It cannot be said that at the present time any one of the universities in the country offers exclusive privileges in American history, because not one of them is fully equipped in that department. Such an equipment would place in the library of the university all the authorities needed in the prosecution of the work. Those authorities would fully set forth the life of the nation politically and economically. Our history is not in Congress alone; that is, indeed, a very small part of it. Our discoveries, our inventions, our agrarian interests, our settlements westward, our educational affairs, the work of the church, the organization of charities, the growth of corporations, the conflict of

racers and for races, at times in our history, are all sources for research ; but in addition to an exhaustive library is needed the man who can and will use it ; he may be teacher or the taught ; if the teacher, then one who by long training has prepared himself for the task ; if the taught, then he who is inspired with the love of country, of American institutions, and, above all, of truth, however it may change accepted notions. An adequate foundation for the prosecution of studies in American institutions can be made only at the university. It is not called for in schools below that rank. History has become a technical study, and it must be pursued as such. The course in our higher institutions must accommodate two classes of students, those who intend to make a special study of history and those who pursue it as a portion of a liberal course of training for good citizenship. The universities must make provision for the training of teachers and for the training of those who are not to become teachers of history. The respective courses for these two classes must differ from each other.

In providing a course in American history in the lower schools, chief attention must be given to the study of our economic history. Of the text-books now used in these schools, Johnston's, called the History of the United States, or Scudder's, are by far the best. It is the opinion of the professors of history at Columbia, Cornell, and Pennsylvania that all instruction in American history for those intending to enter college should be omitted in the common schools. The professors at Harvard and at Johns Hopkins favor the retention of the study in these schools for all. It cannot be doubted that careful training in Johnston's Outlines, or its equivalent, would be a gain for those colleges which have courses in American history ; such training in the preparatory school would save at least one year at college and would be a fit introduction to the extended college course.

The universities which offer courses in American history differ widely in the amount offered. For instance, Harvard offers historical courses for 1886-'87, amounting to forty-six hours weekly, of which eighteen are in American history ; Pennsylvania offers fourteen hours in American history ; Yale, three hours ; Columbia, five ; Wisconsin, three ; Cornell, eight ; Johns Hopkins, four. This is exclusive of the courses in American economics, which at Yale cover three hours per week ; at Columbia, six hours ; at Johns Hopkins, four hours ; at Michigan, four and one-half ; at Pennsylvania, twelve ; and at Harvard, of the eighteen and one-half hours given in courses in political economy, five hours are in American economics. Both at Harvard and at Pennsylvania opportunity is afforded for special advanced study and research in American economics. These privileges are given also at Yale, Cornell, Columbia, and Johns Hopkins.

The prevailing course found in American colleges in American history and economics is hardly more than two hours a week for one term of three months.

The present status of this study for undergraduates in American schools is not high. The public schools, conducted at great cost, in many sections of the country, do almost nothing in teaching American history. In the colleges this subject is attached somewhat curiously to other studies. Thus we find history and Latin, history and mathematics, history and literature, history and a modern language, history and one of the sciences taught by the same professor. It is evident that the best work in the department of history is to be expected only when that department is under the direction of a trained mind. It must have a recognized place among the departments. So long as history has not attained this place in our educational institutions, it is premature to ask that history itself should be subdivided into its own departments. For the present, and perhaps for many years to come, it is only the larger and richer universities that will endow chairs of American history. The other colleges will doubtless unite history and political science into one department. But as the country increases in wealth the friends of university education will found chairs of American history. In that direction lies the future of our educational courses to this extent, that all the training for citizenship that can be obtained at college must be found in this department. This is its just claim for introduction as a college course, that it trains for intelligent citizenship. Not that we do not have more or less of such citizenship now; but of our ten millions of voters, how small the number who are qualified to fill the offices to which they elect others. That is an ideal citizenship which, like the Athenian, can fill any office within its own gift.

Now that we are at last a nation we cannot escape the responsibilities of nationality. We are a problem unto ourselves. Life is no longer a colonial existence. Our national difficulties resemble those of other nations. We have land and labor questions to solve and that quickly. We have questions of race and of race privilege of great magnitude. Shall the nation educate the nation's own? Shall the nation put the great corporations under Federal control? Does the right to regulate interstate commerce reach interstate railroads? We, a nation, inherit both good and evil; and if we let the evil prevail, then "after us the deluge."

For the technical training in history there are needed in our universities both scholarships and fellowships, the income of which will permit men of special aptitude to pursue advanced studies. Technical work in American institutions must proceed like technical work in law or in medicine. There are at present about fifty fellowships at American universities. In the effort to introduce a reform in the study of American institutions, the work must begin in the higher schools and work down into the lower. All reforms have proceeded in that way. When the universities can offer advanced courses in such subjects as American history and economics, then the undergraduate courses will be of relative value and extent.

AMERICAN HISTORY NOT A SUFFICIENT BASIS.

In the training for teaching history we cannot base our work upon American institutions as our leading study. American history is only the part of a whole. It cannot be made to take the place of the history of Europe. As a subject for philosophical investigation, American history cannot yet compare with that of Greece or Rome. It is from those nations that have run a course, that have completed a system, that we must obtain our philosophy of history; and our own history can be made only to supplement the teachings of that philosophy. Therefore, the technical student of history must study the world as the nation of nations, and view citizenship from the vantage ground of the universal citizen. He must rise to that moral elevation which enables him to see man as brother of man, and his interests, not as those of the American nor of the Roman, but as of man himself. The history of American institutions has its beginnings far up towards the sources of the stream of time. The end of historical investigation that purposes to give the power to direct others to understand their institutions from a national point of view, is to see man in his ultimate interests as man, and yet to view him as an individual and simple factor in the moral force of the world. Thus the study of history at the university requires for the best results such an equipment of the historical department as not one of our universities can afford at present. But we are moving towards this consummation; and in the universities whose courses we have attempted to outline, so far as they are in American institutions, will certainly be found, in time, ample provision for the prosecution of history as a science.

CONCLUSIONS.

From this brief review of the status of the study of American history in our schools, we conclude:

I. The course of study in the public schools should afford and require the study of American institutions for at least one-fourth of the time the child is in school. Economic, social, and industrial history should be taught as well as political history. The aim of the instruction should be to acquaint the child with accurate knowledge of the nature of American citizenship and of the duties he must assume as a part of the State. The instruction should develop in the child's mind the historic growth of the nation.

II. In the public schools there should be special teachers of American History and Economics. The colleges and the normal schools should train such teachers.

III. The text-books in the public schools should treat chiefly of the history of the United States so far as they treat of American history. *The nation should be the great theme.* There should be accessible in these schools a selection of historical and economic materials—documents, treatises, reports, reviews, maps, newspapers, books of travel—for the use of teachers and students.

IV. Every college should offer an undergraduate course in American History and Economics of at least two years, three hours a week.

The great universities of the country should afford opportunities for the technical study of American history. They should offer a limited number of scholarships and fellowships for the benefit of men who are qualified and desire to make a technical study of our own institutions, and who otherwise are unable to pursue such investigations. It is to the great universities that we look for complete courses and adequate instruction in American history as well as in European history, general and special. In justice to the nation the youth of our land should become familiar with the story of popular government in this western world. From a careful study of our own institutions we may understand the nature of our national life, may learn the sacrifice by which it has been preserved, may learn with what watchful care it can be sustained, and, above all, learn, as a people, to avoid the commission of those errors which of old have proven the rocks upon which nations are wrecked.

The study of American History and Economics will not of itself prove the panacea for the ills incident to nationality. The great Republic needs and will ever need men, "right minded men; men who their duty know, and knowing, will obey." The presentation of these facts in this paper is our plea for the elevation of the study of our country into that place in the Higher Education to which by intrinsic merits it has right. Other studies have an equal place; it is only just that American History and American Economics occupy their share of the time in the limited college and university courses. So long as man is by nature a political being he must by nature have political training; the technical study of American History and Economics is an essential part of that training.

TABULAR VIEW OF HOURS.

The following table is an estimate of the work now doing in American history and economics in the institutions named in this paper. The statement of hours is based upon letters from the professors named and the catalogue of the institution. The economics for which time is stated is for American economics only.

Institution.	Professor.	Course.	Hours per week.	Years.	Post-graduate work.
Public schools.	Usually none	History.....	2	$\frac{1}{2}$	None.
Yale	Prof. Dexter.....	History.....	2	1	Special.
	Prof. Sumner	Economics	3	1	Special.
	Prof. Phelps.....	Law	1	1	
	Prof. Richards.....	History.....	1	1	
Wisconsin	Prof. Allen	History and economics	3	1	Special.
Columbia	Prof. Burgess.....	History.....	5	1	Seminary.
	Prof. Dwight	Law	1	1	
	Prof. Smith.....	Economics.....	4	1	Special.
	Dr. Seligman	Economics.....	2	1	Special.

Tabular view of hours—Continued.

Institution.	Professor. •	Course.	Hours per week.	Years.	Post-graduate work.
Cornell	President Adams and others.	Economics	2	3	Seminary.
	Prof. Tyler and others.....	{History	8	3	Seminary. Special.
Johns Hopkins.	Dr. H. B. Adams	Seminary, history and politics.	2	3	Fellows.
	Dr. Ely	Economics.....	3	3	
	Dr. Jameson	History.....	2	1	
	Dr. Woodrow Wilson.....	Politics	1	3	
	Dr. E. R. L. Gould.....	Statistics.....	1	1	
Michigan	Prof. Cooley and others.....	History and economics	4½	1	Seminary.
Syracuse	Prof. Little	History.....	5	(a)	2 years.
Rutgers.	Prof. Scott	History and economics	5	1	
Pennsylvania ..	Prof. McMaster	History.....	7	1	Fellows.
	Prof. Thompson	Economics.....	4	1	Special.
	Prof. James	Political science.....	5	1	Seminary.
	Prof. Bolles.....	Finance	4	1	
	Judge Hare.....	Law	1	1	
	Mr. Cheney.....	History.....	2	1	
Harvard.	Prof. Dunbar.....	Economics.....	2	1	Fellows.
	Prof. MacVane	History.....	1½	1	
	Dr. Hart.....	History.....	7½	1	Seminary.
	Dr. Channing.....	History.....	6	1	Seminary.
	Prof. Taussig.....	Economics.....	1	1	

a One term of 3 months.

EXPLANATION—At Harvard, Pennsylvania, Cornell, Columbia, Michigan, Wisconsin, all the courses referred to in this paper are given in one year, *i. e.*, a student might take them all (barring conflicting hours) in any one year, as they are offered each year.

Each of the institutions above named offers courses for post-graduates, leading to various degrees. At Harvard, Columbia, Pennsylvania, Yale, Johns Hopkins, Cornell, Michigan, Syracuse, the course may include studies and investigations in American history and economics.

CHAPTER IX.

HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE IN THE WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOL.

BY E. R. L. GOULD, PH. D.,

*Sometime Fellow in History at the Johns Hopkins University, now of the Bureau of Labor.*¹

The Washington High School is organized somewhat differently from many other institutions of similar grade. The college plan of departmental courses, with a limited range of options in the last two years, is followed with minor variations. Instead, too, of a teacher taking one class and instructing it in many subjects, he is charged with the presentation of his own specialty to a number of classes. There are therefore progressive English studies, mathematics, physical science, history and political science, &c., and each group is presided over by a specialist, who is assisted by teachers also more or less specially qualified.

The work in history extends throughout the three years, and in political economy one year, the last, of the high-school course. History is compulsory in the first year only; after that it is classed either as an alternate or optional study. Notwithstanding this fact, the record of the past academic year shows that 78 per cent. of the whole number of students was enrolled in this department, and that 42 per cent. of those to whom the right of option belonged chose to pursue these courses.

The teaching force comprises an instructor, in charge, an assistant, and sub-assistant, who devote their entire attention to this department, and also another assistant whose time is partially occupied. Instruction in history occupies three hours per week during the first year; four hours per week for one-half of the second year, and four hours per week throughout the third year. Political science has four hours weekly in the third year.

¹ The recent appointment of Dr. Gould to a position in the Bureau of Labor and as lecturer in the Johns Hopkins University, has left a well-developed department of history and political science in the hands of former associates, who will undoubtedly perpetuate the best of his methods and maintain the honorable distinction already gained in these branches at the Washington High School. The development of special departments of instruction in American high schools is a foregone conclusion, although the proper adjustment of the relations between the special and the general in education remains a difficult matter in our public-school systems, as well as in our colleges and universities.—H. B. A.

COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY AND ECONOMICS.

The course of study may be outlined as follows :

First year: (1) General historical exercises. (2) Historical biography. (3) History of Greece. (4) History of Rome.

Second year: (1) History of England.

Third year: (1) General European history. (2) Elements of political economy. (3) Social and economic problems.

It is expedient as soon as practicable to extend the high-school work by adding another year, thus raising the institution almost to the plane of our American colleges. The three general departments of study at present existing, viz, academic, scientific, and business, would probably be remodelled, and a fourth, an English-historical, especially designed to prepare students for the professions of law and journalism, instituted. The work in history and political science would then be as below indicated :

Year.	Academic.	Scientific.	English-historical.	Business.
First ..	1. General historical exercises. 2. Historical biography. 3. Greek history. 4. Roman history.	English history.	1. General historical exercises. 2. Historical biography. 3. Greek history. 4. Roman history.	English history.
Second.	*English history (one-half year).		English history.	1. Civil government (one-half year). 2. General European history (one-half year).
Third..	Political economy, elements (one-half year).	1. Political economy, elements (one-half year), 2. Current economic and social questions (one-half year).	1. Political economy, elements (one-half year). 2. Current economic and social questions (one-half year).	1. Political economy, elements (one-half year). 2. Finance and administration, lectures (one-half year).
Fourth.	*General European history (one-half year). Administration and civil government (one-half year).		General European history (one-half year). Administration and civil government (one-half year).	

* Elective.

The only historical subject taught in the public schools of Washington is the History of the United States. Students entering the High School know as a rule little or nothing of general history. Hence the courses of study are laid out to suit their requirements, United States history being omitted. Scarcely any enter under fifteen years of age; the average age is about eighteen; so that what practically amounts to collegiate instruction is rendered feasible.

METHODS OF TEACHING.

In the foregoing tabular sketches no reference was made to the manner in which each course is presented. This will appear in a few words upon the methods of teaching adopted. During the opening hour of

school on Monday mornings the entire first-year class is assembled in the large exhibition hall for what may be called a general exercise. These sessions are lacking in uniformity, but have a constant purpose, viz: To awaken interest, arouse enthusiasm, and stimulate habits of personal reading and discussion. First of all the student has explained to him simply and clearly what history is, what it means, what its special uses are. More especially he is told how and why it should be studied. He learns that the old-fashioned process of absorption from the text-book alone is faulty, not to say uninteresting and painful. He is told that text-books furnish for the most part only raw materials, and that he should aim to make his mind a laboratory of analyses as well as a storehouse of facts. He is informed that this so-called laboratory work will be mostly done for him in the beginning, but that his responsibility will advance with experience, until eventually he will be called upon to present special topics in their full import to his classmates.

A few exercises having been taken up in this manner, the class next passes on to the consideration of questions of immediate or recent political prominence. For instance, last year the annexation of Burmah, the Servo-Bulgarian difficulty, Irish home rule, and the Hoar Presidential succession bill were amongst the themes discussed. Students are invited to read what they can find in newspapers and magazines, are questioned in class, and, after the contemporary facts have been elicited, the instructor proceeds to explain the questions in their purely historical phases. The object here is twofold: First, to get pupils to read for their own information; and, secondly, to show them that history does not belong entirely to the past, but that it has also an office in the present which he who would make of himself a good citizen or successful public man cannot afford to neglect.

The last six of these Monday morning sessions are devoted to lectures on the relation of physical geography to history.

COURSE IN HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY.

The suggestions given in these general exercises for the proper methods of studying history would probably be of little use unless some opportunity were immediately offered to fortify precept by practice. The course in historical biography is designed to be the initiatory step, and is conducted in the following manner: Thirty-six prominent characters are selected, beginning with Pericles and Alexander the Great and ending with Bismarck and Gladstone, and each student is required to write an essay, not exceeding eight pages of foolscap paper, upon some one personage. The whole first-year class is divided into sections of from thirty to thirty-six, each section as a usual thing reciting independently. The requisite number of cards is prepared, upon which are written the names of the characters and an appropriate selection of references. The cards being distributed by lot in each section, the subjects are given out impartially and in such a manner that no two in a section write on the same character. Six weeks is the limit allowed for

preparing the essays, and during this time the sub-assistant, whose special duty is to direct the reference reading of the first-year class, gives them all legitimate help. On the appointed day the essays are handed in, after which they are examined and marked by the teachers and returned to their owners. The recitations in Greek history, which have been occupying two hours weekly all this time, are temporarily suspended while the essays are read. They are called up in proper chronological order, and while the reading is going on the remaining members of the class listen. After each essay is presented the teacher who is conducting the exercise comments on it, with a view of pointing out especially the significance of the great events with which the subject of the sketch was identified and the relation of these events to others, where any exists. It is an object to make the exercises as full of pleasure as possible, and, therefore, instead of having the whole class take notes at the time, each student is required to write an abstract of his own essay, and thus, after it has been supervised and found satisfactory, is placed on file in the room wherein the section sits, ready for consultation at any proper time.

This course answers several purposes. The student now, for the first time attempts something like independent work. Perplexed with what seems to him a vast amount of material recommended for consultation, and knowing that he cannot read it all, he seeks and obtains directions for reading to the greatest advantage. With his attention divided among so many events, in every one of which the hero of his sketch has been concerned, he learns to discriminate between important and unimportant facts. Then, again, his individual effort has made him thoroughly familiar with one particular field, and in listening to the results of others he gets an initial, though superficial, view of general history, which usually creates a desire for more comprehensive and detailed information. The interest attaching to a personal figure as the center of a cluster of events, the restriction of individual work to a limited compass and, above all, the rivalry in class to have the best essay, combine to make the results obtained by a study of historical biography in this manner eminently satisfactory.

GREEK AND ROMAN HISTORY.

The work in Greek and Roman history is carried on with the aid of a text-book, lectures, and topical studies. Considerable stress is laid upon map-drawing, and fifteen minutes at the beginning of each exercise are devoted to this, until the students can draw from memory a fair map of Greece and Rome, showing places of historical importance. Occasional formal lectures are given on such subjects as art, philosophy, religion, and literature in Greece; and domestic life, politics, and administration in Rome; but the most usual methods of supplementing the text-books are informal talks by the teachers and topical discussions by students. Note-books must be kept, and frequent written recitations are held, of which usually no previous notice is given.

A CLASS LIBRARY.

A feature in connection with historical studies the first year is a kind of circulating library which is adapted to the needs of the class. It contains a few works of standard historical fiction, as for example those of Ebers and Rydberg, and descriptive writings like those of Mahaffy, Becker, Church, and others. The monitors of the sections act as librarians, and all books are returned and redrawn at stated periods. Works like these, conveying as they do a vivid picture of Greek and Roman life and society, have a wonderfully stimulating effect, when read contemporaneously with the more serious study of the history of these nations. The teacher has no extra labor, and the only cost to the student is the occupation of a few hours which would doubtless otherwise be spent in less useful story-reading. I have not found it sufficient to recommend the reading of such works, and leave the responsibility with the class. Few individuals will follow up the advice. But establish a library of this sort and you will soon hear an interchange of opinions on ancient habits, customs, and institutions, and see satisfactory symptoms of an enhanced interest in the details of history.

A perplexing difficulty which confronts every teacher of historical subjects who has to deal with a large number of students is the apathy of a portion of his class. They have an idea, too often encouraged by so-called practical parents, that this branch of knowledge can be acquired by merely reading at any time. Hence they feel like worrying through their history, since they must take it. Everything, therefore, however small, which makes duty a pleasure to some and induces attention or enthusiasm in others, is a great point gained. Historical studies will never receive their due proportion of attention from high-school students until methods of presentation claim more conspicuous consideration from teachers.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

In the second year, English history is studied for half the year, and, in the third, general European history throughout the full academic session. Neither of these courses is compulsory, the first being alternative and the latter optional. Thompson's *England*¹ is assigned as a textbook for the one, but its use does not extend beyond that of a convenient repository of facts. On all important subjects selections from Green, Stubbs, Freeman, Hallam, and others are indicated for special reading. As the time is rather limited, this is, in fact, a topical course. Events of lesser importance are neglected altogether, but the more striking facts are made the themes of class essays and discussions by the most efficient students, and of frequent lectures by the instructor. The work concludes with a comparison of the English and American executive and legislative branches of government in theory and practice.

¹ Gardiner's *England* is better.

TOPICAL STUDY.

The third-year course is entirely topical. It includes a consideration of the great epoch-making events of European history, beginning with the birth of Christianity. The work is conducted on the co-operative plan, every member of the class assisting the instructor with well prepared lectures on particular themes. A partial list of the subjects treated includes the following: the Lights of Paganism; Heresies in the Early Church; the Conversion of the Celts; the English; the Slavs; the Northmen; Mahomet and the Saracens; Pope Gregory VII; the Crusades; the Republics of Venice and Florence; the Rise of Switzerland; the Peasant Wars; the Hanseatic League; the Revival of Learning; the Reformation; the Thirty Years' War; the Revolt of the Netherlands; the Huguenots; the Seven Years' War; the Rise of English Power in India; the French Revolution. It is sought, as far as possible, to go over the ground, first, by questioning the class out of Freeman's General Sketch or Fisher's Outlines, so that, when a student comes to lecture, the main facts of the subject he discusses are already familiar. These lectures are an excellent means of training and, coming as a kind of review, they serve to impress indelibly events upon the memory, and to give a great deal of information that could not otherwise be well presented. At the end of the year the essays of chief merit are selected and bound together in a volume to be kept as a souvenir of the class. The pupils usually try to do their best, and some of their efforts during the present year would have done credit to advanced college students. The instructor, of course, gives them a great deal of help, and takes some of the more difficult and controversial themes himself. The course ends with a special course of lectures by the teacher upon the history of the nineteenth century.

In both the second and third years note-books are required, and written or oral recitations are frequently used as a means of drill.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

This is hardly the place to say much about the work in political economy. Only a word or two will be offered. There is not here as wide a scope for variation of method as in historical teaching. In the third year, Walker's elements, supplemented largely by the opinions of other writers, form the staple of instruction. After the text-book is finished, current, social, and economic problems receive attention. The preparation, under the supervision of the instructor of statistical diagrams, illustrating the effects of financial legislation upon the currency and revenue, is made a part of the class work.

The reading table contains The Nation, the Political Science Quarterly, the Quarterly Journal of Economics, the Citizen, the Baltimore Civil Service Reformer, the Economic Tracts, Work and Wages, several labor journals, and texts of the leading economic bills before Congress. One hour a week during the last half year is devoted to short

reports given by the students in rotation upon these journals, each pupil taking but one article at a time and preparing an abstract of his report for filing away. By this means familiarity with contemporary economic and political thought is secured.

FACILITIES FOR HISTORICAL STUDY IN WASHINGTON.

A sketch of this kind would hardly be complete without some reference to particular facilities for study. Of these the one most utilized is the High School library, which contains about 500 volumes devoted to history and political science. Although this is the most convenient, it is by no means the only source of information. The Congressional library and the libraries of the different Departments are easy of access to most of the students, and furnish practically everything that could be desired in the way of reading facilities.

AN HISTORICAL ENVIRONMENT IN SCHOOL.

A special room has just been set apart in the High School for the use of this department. This room is accessible only to students of the second and third years, and is equipped with maps, charts, diagrams, and statistical illustrations, chiefly the work of students, portraits of illustrious specialists in history and economics, a library of reference books, public documents, and scrap-books of newspaper clippings upon subjects of contemporary interest. A place of this sort, well stocked with the implements of study and illustration, and devoted solely to the use of the more advanced students of the department, exercises a beneficial influence and attraction. In corroboration of this statement it is only necessary to add the testimony of the "record book," which shows that there were three hundred and one books and magazines taken out from December 1 to March 10 amongst seventy-five third-year students.

The results achieved thus far have been very satisfactory. The examinations have almost uniformly shown a high standard of attainment, while the interest and attention manifested in the various exercises are a source of great encouragement. The methods of instruction seem to develop independent, self-reliant, and progressive students. The library facilities are ample and furnish a valuable accessory to training; and, lastly, the environment is fortunate.

WASHINGTON THE CENTRE OF POLITICAL EDUCATION.

There seems to be an indefinable something in the surroundings of Washington, the political capital of the nation, favorable to the work of this department, because calculated to give zest to the prosecution of those studies which make the citizen and train the statesman. Let us hope that this immaterial essence may one day crystallize into a Government institution, a Civil Academy, whose object shall be the training of American youth for positions of administrative trust and responsibility.

CHAPTER X.

CARROLL D. WRIGHT ON POLITICAL EDUCATION.

The evolution of the idea of a Civil Academy in the city of Washington, proposed by the writer of this report in his monograph on William and Mary College (Circular of Information, Bureau of Education, No. 1, 1887), will probably begin in connection with Government bureaus, where the need of well-trained specialists is already felt. These bureaus will become seminaries or practical training schools in political science. The statistical bureau of Prussia took the lead in the institution of a so-called statistical seminary for university graduates in Berlin, and appearances indicate that the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics will take a similar lead in this country. At a joint meeting of the American Historical and Economic Associations, at Harvard University, May 24, 1887, the Hon. Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of the United States Bureau of Labor, in a remarkable paper on "The Study of Statistics in American Colleges," took this advanced ground, from which can be seen with equal clearness the duty of our great universities and the duty of the General Government towards the long-neglected cause of political education—the practical lesson of all history and of all statistics, which is history in the purest mathematical form. Colonel Wright said, with profound conviction and deep significance: "I would say to the colleges of America that the institutions which soonest grasp the progressive educational work of the day will be the most successful competitors in the race. That college which comprehends that it is essential to fit men for the best administrative duties, not only in government but in the great business enterprises which demand leaders of as high quality as those essential for a chief magistrate, will receive the patronage, the commendation, and the gratitude of the public. The men who are the best trained, who have learned the practical work of special sciences, are the ones that are guiding the people, and so the colleges and universities which grasp these things by the teaching of statistical science along with all the other great features of social science, including the branches which bring knowledge nearest to the community itself, are the colleges which will secure success, and not only success in a pecuniary point of view, but success in that grander field of the best work for the race. I urge, therefore, that our American colleges follow the example of European institutions. *I would urge upon the Government of the United States, and upon the government of the*

States, the necessity of providing by law for the admission of students that have taken scientific courses in statistics as honorary attachés of or clerks to be employed in the practical work of statistical offices. This is easily done without expenditure by the Government, but with the very best economic results.

“We take a census in the United States every ten years, but as a rule the men that are brought into the work know nothing of statistics. They should be trained in the very elementary work of the census taking and of statistical science. How much more economical for the Government to keep its experienced statisticians busily employed in the interim of census taking, even if they do no more than study forms, methods, and analyses connected with the presentation of the facts of the preceding census. Money would be saved, results would be more thoroughly appreciated, and problems would be solved.

“Our State and Federal Governments should be vitally interested in the elevation of statistical work to scientific proportions, for the necessary outcome of the application of civil-service principles to the conduct of all governmental affairs lies in this, that as the affairs of the people become more and more the subjects of legislative regulation or control, the necessity for the most accurate information relating to such affairs and for the scientific use of such information increases.

“The extension of civil-service principles must become greater and greater, and the varied demands which will be created by their growth logically become more exacting, so that the possibilities within the application of such principles are therefore not ideal but practical in their nature. And these potentialities in the near future will enhance the value of the services of trained statisticians.

“The consular and diplomatic service, as well as other fields of Government administration, come under this same necessity. The utilization of the consular service for original investigations creates in itself a wide-reaching statistical force, and one which should be competent to exercise its statistical functions with all the accuracy that belongs to science. So government should supplement college training with practical administrative instruction acquired through positive service in its own Departments.

“This appeal that statistical science be taught in our colleges comes to this Association more forcibly than to any other. The beginning which has been made in this direction in this country is honorable indeed. Shall it be supplemented in the great universities and leading colleges of America? Do not think for a moment that if the teaching of statistical science be incorporated in our college courses the country will be flooded with a body of statisticians. There is enough work for every man who understands statistical science. He need not be employed by Government. The most brilliant achievements of the European statisticians have been secured in a private or semi-official way. The demand will equal the supply, and the demand of the public for

statistical knowledge grows more and more positive, and the supply should equal the demand.

“General Walker in a letter in 1874 said: ‘The country is hungry for information; everything of a statistical character, or even of a statistical appearance, is taken up with an eagerness that is almost pathetic; the community have not yet learned to be half skeptical and critical enough in respect to such statements.’ He can add, Statistics are now taken up with an eagerness that is serious.

“‘Know thyself’ applies to nations as well as to men; and that nation which neglects to study its own conditions, or fears to study its own conditions in the most searching and critical manner, must fall into retrogression. If there is an evil, let the statistician search it out; by searching it out and carefully analyzing statistics, he may be able to solve the problem. If there is a condition that is wrong, let the statistician bring his figures to bear upon it, only be sure that the statistician employed cares more for the truth than he does for sustaining any preconceived idea of what the solution should be. A statistician should not be an advocate, for he cannot work scientifically if he is working to an end. He must be ready to accept the results of his study, whether they suit his doctrine or not. The colleges in this connection have an important duty to perform, for they can aid in ridding the public of the statistical mechanic, the man who builds tables to order to prove a desired result. These men have lowered the standard of statistical science by the empirical use of its forces.

“*The statistician writes history. He writes it in the most concrete form in which history can be written, for he shows on tablets all that makes up the commonwealth; the population with its varied composition; the manifold activities which move it to advancement; the industries, the wealth, the means for learning and culture, the evils that exist, the prosperity that attends, and all the vast proportions of the comely structure we call State. Statistical science does not use the perishable methods which convey to posterity as much of the vanity of the people as of the reality which makes the commonwealth of to-day, but the picture is set in cold, enduring, Arabic characters, which will survive through the centuries, unchanged and unchangeable by time, by accident, or by decay. It uses symbols which have unlocked to us the growth of the periods which make up our past — they are the fitting and never changing symbols by which to tell the story of our present state, that when the age we live in becomes the past of successive generations of men, the story and the picture shall be found to exist in all the just proportions in which it was set, with no glowing sentences to charm the actual and install in its place the ideal; with no fading colors to deceive and lead to imaginative reproduction, but symbols set in dies as unvarying and as truthful in the future as in the past. The statistician chooses a quiet and may be an unlovely setting, but he knows it will endure through all time.*”

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to

Name of the institution.	Location.	Entrance requirements.				Number of courses.	History, one of how many subjects?
		United States.	English.	General.	Ancient.		
St. Ignatius College.....	San Francisco, Cal.....					7	
University of Colorado	Boulder, Colo.....			×		8	Several.
Wesleyan University.....	Middletown, Conn.....	×				5	4
				Rome and Greece.			5
Illinois College	Jacksonville, Ill.....	×				4	
University of Illinois.....	Urbana, Ill.....	×				5	3
Indiana University	Bloomington, Ind.....	×		×		4	3
Wabash College	Crawfordsville, Ind...	×				4	
Franklin College.....	Franklin, Ind.....	×	×			4	3 or 4
		1st course; 2d and 3d courses.					
Hanover College.....	Hanover, Ind.....			Rome and Greece.		3 or 4	5
Union Christian College	Merom, Ind.....					3	3 or 4
St. Meinrad's College	St. Meinrad, Ind.....					3	3-5
Amity College	College Springs, Iowa.					2	3 or 4
Norwegian Lutheran College	Decorah, Iowa.....			Biblical.		5	
Kansas State University.....	Lawrence, Kans.....			United States and civil Government.		2	2
Berea College	Berea, Ky.....					3	3
Centre College.....	Danville, Ky.....					6	
Central University	Richmond, Ky.....					2	
St. Charles College.....	Grand Coteau, La.....					3 or more.	
Straight University	New Orleans, La.....					4	3
Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.....				R.&Gk.	20 ×	No system.
Adrian College	Adrian, Mich.....					3	3
Hope College	Holland, Mich.....	×	×		R.&Gk.	7	

the study of history in American universities and colleges.

Relative prominence of history.							Historical subjects preferred by students.	Time.			What other historical authorities used besides text-books?
Classics.	English.	History.	Mathematics.	Modern languages.	Natural science.	Philosophy.		Hours per week.	Hours per year.	Hours per week needed for preparation.	
.....							United States history.....	3	120	3	The leading and standard historical works. Ordinary works of reference. Congressional reports, speeches and pamphlets. Rawlinson, R. Smith, Grote, Curtius, Mommsen, Charicles, Gallus, Gibbon, New Testament, Hume, Macaulay, &c.
.....									95		
4½	5½	4	1	1½	12	3½	American and English of the eighteenth century.	2½	95	6	
.....											
12	6		7	3	5	3	1. Aryan civilization. 2. English and American Government, and literature. 3. Political development of the United States.			5	All standard authorities. Guizot's Civilization, Balme's European Civilization, Lingard, Fyffe, Stubbs, Von Holst, Hallam, Gardiner, Freeman, Dicey's Law of the Constitution.
5	1	4	6	2	3	7	Greece in fifth century; Rome under Augustus; Modern history; Crusades and Arabic movements.	5	150	12	
.....							History of the United States.	5		5-10	
.....								1		3-4	
.....							England, France, Germany, United States.		82	12-18	Bancroft, Shea, Rollin, Canter, Wiedmann, Döllinger, Hergeröther Hefe. Ridpath's United States, Taylor & Webb's General History.
.....									58		
20	20	8	15	16	10	8		5		2	
.....								3		8	
3	5		2		1	4	Egypt, Persia, Italy, England, early discoveries of America; Revolution and Rebellion.	5	180	10	All authorities that time will admit of. Any standard authors, poems or fiction, illustrative of different periods.
.....								5	180	5	
47	25	25	22	31	3			14	500	28	
.....								5	120	10-15	
1	2	1	2	1	1			4½	140	9	None.
.....							Greece, Mediæval, modern France, and America.	1	42	2	
5	3	4	1		2		Such as include accounts of revolutions.	5	170	5	
.....							Modern history, especially England and America.	2	80	4	
.....							Greece, Rome, Elizabethan period, Napoleon, Netherlands, Germany, Thirty Years' War.	3	117	10	"All that the resources of a great library can offer." All best authorities.
1	1	2	2				Modern history after Reformation.	2	65		
History has one-half the time.											

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Location.	Entrance requirements.				Number of courses.	History, one of how many subjects?
		United States.	English.	General.	Ancient.		
Carleton College.....	Northfield, Minn	x	x	x	x	4	3
Harperville College.....	Harperville, Miss.....			x		3	5
University of Mississippi	Oxford, Miss.....					1	1
Washington University.....	St. Louis, Mo.....	x	x		R.&Gk.	4	
Stewartsville College	Stewartsville, Mo					2	4 or 5
Canisius College.....	Buffalo, N. Y.....					5	1
Madison University.....	Hamilton, N. Y	x	x	Mo. Eu.		1	
Ohio State University.....	Columbus, Ohio.....	x			Gk.	6	3 or more.
Wittenberg College.....	Springfield, Ohio.....	x	x	x		2	3 or more.
Heidelberg College	Tiffin, Ohio					5	No system.
Pacific University	Forest Grove, Oreg					4	3
Villanova College.....	Delaware Co., Pa.....					5	2
Brown University	Providence, R. I				R.&Gk.	3	4, 5, or 6
College of Charleston.....	Charleston, S. C.....	x				2	3
Bloomington College.....	Bloomington, Tenn....	x				3	5
Central Tennessee College.....	Nashville, Tenn			None.		2	3 or more.
University of Virginia.....	Univ. of Virginia, Va			None.		1	3
University of Wisconsin.....	Madison, Wis	x	x		x	4	3
				Class. course.			
Ripon College	Ripon, Wis.....	x				1	3
Napa College	Napa, Cal			None.		8	
Columbia College	New York City.....		x	x	x	3	3 or more.
University of Michigan.....	Ann Arbor, Mich	x	x	x		1	3 or more.
Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.....	x			x	6	
				History of Jews.			
Smith College	Northampton, Mass				x	4	3 or more.
Trinity College	Hartford, Conn.....			Greece and Rome.		2	3 or more.

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Relative prominence of history.							Historical subjects preferred by students.	Time.			What other historical authorities used besides text-books?
Classics.	English.	History.	Mathematics.	Modern languages.	Natural science.	Philosophy.		Hours per week.	Hours per year.	Hours per week needed for preparation.	
Hours.							Modern history; Reformation, English and French; Revolution United States.	5	150	5	Monteith's Historical Geography and the regular historical authorities.
603	190	194	287	394	188			4	180		
41	18	23	18				France; England since 1689; Constitutional History United States and England; comparative study of European and American systems.	2½	90	5	
First year, per cent.							United States	6		10	Ridpath's, Josephus, Rollin.
Afterwards 25 per cent.								2		2	
7	10	10	10	7	9	9	Constitutional and Political History of United States; Recent History of Europe, 1815-1881.	5		15	Gibbon, Guizot, Green, Motley, Prescott, &c.
3	6	5	2	7	1	4	America, England, French Revolution, Crusades.	5	180	9-15	All I can get access to.
1	5	2	2	6	3	4	Ancient and English.	2	64	4	
								2			Blass, Rawlinson, Knight, Hallam, Green, Anderson, Carlyle, &c.
Terms.							Ancient Greece; Republican Rome; Mediæval Italy; Modern France.	5		8-10	
16	6	5	12	4	11	8	American, English; Renaissance; Middle Ages.	3	120		Such cyclopædias, &c., as are within reach.
2	2		1	2	1	1	Modern History from Elizabeth on.	3	50	2-3	
1	5		4	3	2	6	United States emancipation.	5		6-7	
							English and last century United States history.	3	120	9	
								5	180	3-5	
Rank.							History of Greece and Rome and Rise of Freedom.	3	80		None.
1		2	1		1		Ancient history	5		10	Labberton's Historical Atlas; Ploetz Outlines; Willard's Synopsis of History; Stubbs' Select Charters.
5	10		8	6	9	7	English and American.	5			
							History of Civilization; Constitutional History.	2		4	Original sources.
11	4	2	4		6	5	Revolutionary and Post-Revolutionary European History; Political History of the United States.	3		4½	Green, Stubbs, Hallam, May, Guizot, Kitchen, Thiers, Blanc, Bancroft, Hildreth, Von Holst, &c.
							United States. Revolution and Civil War.	2		4	Mommsen, Merivale, Gibbon, Grote, Curtius, Felton, Symonds, Fisher, Motley, Carlyle, Müller, &c.
								2-3	86	2-3	Standard authorities.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Is a specific amount of reading required?	Is a thorough reading of one authority preferred or the comparison of a variety of authors?	Are extracts from standard works and original sources used?	Are lectures used in instruction?	What other methods of instruction are used?	Are synopses of lessons given?
St. Ignatius College.....	Yes...	Both are used..	Rarely.....		Geographical maps; historical charts; object lessons.	Yes...
University of Colorado....	No.....	×	Sometimes.	Yes.....		No....
Wesleyan University.....		×	Yes...	Yes.....		No....
Illinois College	No.....	×	Briefly.	Yes.....	Charts; wall maps; Universal Atlas; Encyclopædia; Gazetteer.	Yes...
University of Illinois.....	Yes.....	×	No....	In half the exercises.	Wall charts.....	Sometimes.
Indiana University.....	No.....	×	No....	No.....	I have a "Laboratory," in which class read and write under my direction. We are going to publish a political history of the United States.	No....
Wabash College	No.....	×	Sometimes.	Yes.....	Manual, with collateral reading.	Yes...
Franklin College.....	Yes.....		Sometimes.	Yes.....		
Hanover College.....			Seldom	Sometimes.		Sometimes.
Union Christian College...	Yes.....	×	Not usually.	Sometimes.	Chart outline and blackboard drill.	Yes...
St. Meinrad's College.....		×	Yes...	In lower grades.		Yes...
Amity College.....		Both..	No...	No.....		No....
Norwegian Lutheran College.		×	Yes...	Seldom.	Examinations, explanations, and narrations.	Somewhat.
Kansas State University...		Both..	Yes...	Largely.	Topical work presented orally by students.	Yes...
Berea College	Yes.....	×	Yes...	Seldom.	Topical recitations and frequent reviews of important points.	Yes...
Centre College.....	Sometimes.		Rarely.	Yes.....		A little.
Central University			No....	Yes.....		Sometimes.
St. Charles College.....			Yes...	Sometimes.	Discussion of special topics.	Sometimes.
Straight University	No....	Both..	Yes...	Very little.	Map-drawing	Yes...
Harvard University	No....	×	Seldom	Yes; two-thirds.	Brief studies on assigned topics; writing of theses; collateral reading.	Sometimes.
Adrian College	No....	Both..	Yes...	$\frac{1}{3}$ of time.	Preparations of theses read before classes.	Yes ..

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Is blackboard analysis of periods or subjects used?	Is attention paid to historical perspective?	Are topics assigned for special investigation?	What kind of report preferable, oral or written?	Are historical essays written?	How often?	Who selects the subject?	What methods or practices have been abandoned as unprofitable?	Is local history fostered by your department?
We use historical charts.		Yes.....		Yes.....	Once a month.	The professor.		Great encouragement offered.
Yes.....	Yes.....	In higher class.	Both.....	Yes.....				Not at all.
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Oral.....	Yes.....	Four per annum.	Pupil selects from a long list.		Yes.
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Written.	Yes.....	Soph. 4, jun. & sen. 6, per year.	Teacher selects half.	Students should learn rather than be taught.	Yes.
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Written.	Yes.....	Frequently.	Teacher.		
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Written and oral.	Yes.....	One each term.	Teacher	To a certain extent text-books, examinations, and charts.	No.
Yes.....	Not much	Sometimes.	Oral.....	No.....			Lectures in detail and memorizing of text-books.	No.
.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Both.....					
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Both.....	Yes.....	Once a term.	Teacher.	None.....	
Yes.....	Yes.....	Occasionally.		Yes.....	Occasionally.			Little.
Yes.....	Yes.....			Yes.....	Monthly	Teacher		
Somewhat.	No.....						Questions in class. Have adopted topical recitation.	Yes.
No.....	Yes.....	No.....					None.....	
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Oral generally.	Yes.....		Teachers		Yes.
Sometimes.	Yes.....	Yes.....		Yes.....	Once or twice a month.			Yes.
A little.	No.....	Sometimes.	Written.	Yes.....	Rarely..	Professor.		A little.
Not often	Yes.....	Yes.....	Written.	No.....				
Sometimes.	Yes.....			Yes.....				
Yes.....	No.....	Yes.....	Oral.....	No.....				Very little.
Occasionally.	No general course.	Yes.....		In certain courses.		By student from a list chosen by instructor.	Hearing of recitations from a book by fixed lessons.	
Yes.....	Special attention.	Yes.....	Written.	Yes.....	3 to 6 times a year.	Teacher	"I use all methods."	No

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Is a specific amount of reading required?	Is a thorough reading of one authority preferred or the comparison of a variety of authors?		Are extracts from standard works and original sources used?	Are lectures used in instruction?	What other methods of instruction are used?	Are synopses of lessons or assigned lessons given?
Hope College	No....			Seldom	Not much	No other.....	No....
Carleton College.....			x	Yes...	Seldom..	Individual investigation.	Briefly
Harperville College.....	No....	x		Sometimes.	Yes....		Sometimes.
University of Mississippi..				Sometimes.	Frequently.	Debates by the class.	Sometimes.
Washington University....	Sometimes.		x	Often	Partly ..	Photographic slides for lantern.	Sometimes.
Stewartsville College				Sometimes.	Sometimes.	No other.....	Often
Canisius College.....				Sometimes.	Yes....		Yes ..
Madison University	Yes....		x	Yes....	Yes....	No other.....	Yes....
Ohio State University	No....		x	Sometimes.	25 per cent. of courses.	Topical study, with reports.	Often
Wittenberg College.....	No....	x		Yes....	One course.	Sometimes give subjects for investigation.	No....
Heidelberg College	No....	x		Yes....	Yes; daily.		Yes....
Pacific University	No....	x		Yes....	Sometimes.	Debates by pupil; abstracts, essays, general discussions.	Yes....
Villanova College.....		It depends		Yes....			
Brown University			x	Yes....	Rarely..	Use a printed syllabus.	Yes....
College of Charleston.....			x	Yes....	Yes....		Yes....
Bloomington College			x	Not generally.	Yes....		Yes....
Central Tennessee College.	Yes....		x	Yes....	But little.		Sometimes.
University of Virginia.....	No....		x	No....	Yes; chief thing.	Historical instruction.	Sometimes.
University of Wisconsin...	As far as possible.		x	Yes....	Yes....	Arranging special topics for preparation; translating and commenting on original documents.	But little.
Ripon College				Yes....	Yes....	Object lessons	Very generally.

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Is blackboard analysis of periods or subjects used?	Is attention paid to historical perspective?	Are topics assigned for special investigation?	What kind of report is preferable, oral or written?	Are historical essays written?	How often?	Who selects the subject?	What methods or practices have been abandoned as unprofitable?	Is local history fostered by your department?
Sometimes.	No.....	No.....		Sometimes.	Sometimes.	Teacher		No.
No.....	Somewhat.	Not often.	Oral.....	Yes.....	6 times a year.	Pupils..		No.
No.....	No.....	No.....		No.....				No.
Frequently.	Yes.....	Yes.....	Both.....	Yes.....	Once a week.	Teacher	"Parrot-performance from the book."	No.
Occasionally.	Yes.....	Yes.....	Oral.....	Yes.....	Every 2 months.	Teacher	Dwelling too much on insignificant dates; details of military operations; too little on condition of people and relation of nations to one another.	Not much.
Sometimes.	When convenient.	Often...	Written.	Yes; occasionally.	Yes; occasionally.	Teacher	Committing to memory.	Yes; that of State.
Yes.....	Decidedly.	Yes.....		Yes.....		Teacher		No.
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Written.	Yes.....	3 a year	Teacher		
No.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Written.	Not in every class.		Teacher		Partially.
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Oral.....	Yes.....	Weekly.	Sometimes teacher; sometimes pupil.		Nothing special.
Yes.....	Special attention.	Yes.....	Both.....	Yes.....	3 per week.	Teacher	"I tried the lecture system too much."	
.....	Very much.	Yes.....		Yes.....	1 per month.	Teacher		
Yes.....	Emphatically.	Yes.....	Optional	No regulations.		Pupil from teacher's list.		Yes.
Rarely..	Constantly.	Yes.....	Written.	Yes.....	1 a week	Teacher		Yes.
Yes.....	Very necessary.	Frequently.	Both.....	No.....			Method of using printed questions in class.	
But little	Considerable.	Yes.....	Both.....	Yes.....		Teacher.	The committing words of the lesson to memory.	Very little.
Not always.	Generally.	No.....		No.....			The endeavor to teach history to those who have no capacity for it.	No.
A little.	As much as possible.	Yes.....	Oral.....	Sometimes.		Teacher.	Text-books and formal lectures.	Yes.
No.....	Yes.....	No.....		No.....			Memorizing text-books, chart and map-drawing, and daily recitations.	No.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Is a specific amount of reading required?	Is a thorough reading of one authority preferred or the comparison of a variety of authors?		Are extracts from standard works and original sources used?	Are lectures used in instruction?	What other methods of instruction are used?	Are synopses of lessons given?
Napa College	No.....			Yes....	Yes; half.	Original charts of prominent events on blackboards.	Sometimes.
Columbia College.....	No.....		x	No....	Yes; largely.	Maps, globe, prize essays.	Sometimes.
University of Michigan.....			x	Yes....	Yes; chiefly.	Seminary	Sometimes.
Wellesley College			x	Occasionally.	Yes.....	Optional reading, guided by a tabulated view of a given period.	Yes; weekly.
Smith College	No.....			Rarely.	Yes; mostly.	Topical reading; making of abstracts.	Sometimes.
Trinity College.....			x	Yes....	Largely.	Writing historical essays and investigation of special points.	

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Is blackboard analysis of periods or subjects used?	Is attention paid to historical perspective?	Are topics assigned for special investigation?	What kind of report is preferable, oral or written?	Are historical essays written?	How often?	Who selects the subject?	What methods or practices have been abandoned as unprofitable?	Is local history fostered by your department?
Yes; very much. Not much.	Yes; very largely.	Sometimes.		Yes.....	Once a month.	Teacher.		No.
Yes.....	Yes; very largely.	Only in higher grades. Yes; in seminary.	Both.....	Yes.....				No.
Yes.....	Yes; chiefly.	Yes.....	Oral.....	Yes.....		Teacher.	Careful preparation of notebooks; technical examination of advanced students.	Slightly.
A little.	Emphatically.	Yes; somewhat.		No.....			Exclusive memorizing, and the directly opposite method of no memorizing.	
A little.	To some extent.	Yes.....	Written.	Yes.....		Teacher.		

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Do your classes visit places of historical interest in the vicinity?	Do they collect materials for local history?	Is there in your neighborhood a local historical museum?	Names of text-books used.	No. of pages assigned for an average lesson.
St. Ignatius College			Yes.....	1. Elementary United States 2. Gilman's Bible History 3. Brannan's Ecclesiastical History 4. Howard's History United States 5. Gazeau's Ancient History 6. Middle Ages 7. Modern History	1 3 4 6 8 10 12
University of Colorado.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	Swinton's Outline (public school).. Hallam, Green's England Taylor's Modern Europe Ploetz' Epitome.....	6
Wesleyan University.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	American History (Lodge's)..... Federalist, two papers	30
Illinois College	No.....	No.....	No.....	Green's Short English History	12
University of Illinois.....	No.....	Yes.....	No.....	Thalheimer's Ancient History or Rawlinson, Harper's Students' Series in Mediæval and Modern. Young's Two Centuries of Mod- ern History.	7, 10, or 12
Indiana University.....	No.....	No.....	One in univer- sity.	Guizot's History of Civilization ... Creasy's English Constitution Andrews' United States Constitu- tion. Green's English People..... Harper's France	10
Wabash College	No.....	No.....		Johnston's American Politics..... Guizot's History of Civilization... Woolsey's International Law Johnston's United States..... Gilman, Scudder and Ridpath's United States History. Smith, Felton, and Thalheimer's Greek History. Leighton, Pennell, Thalheimer's Roman History. Classical Dictionaries.....	
Franklin College				Scudder's and Johnston's United States History. Nordhoff's Politics for Young Americans. Green's Short History England.... Ploetz' Epitome..... Bryce's Holy Roman Empire..... Stillé's Mediæval History..... Guizot's Civilization	
Hanover College.....				Greek and Roman History..... Bowen Thalheimer Green..... Elliott	
Union Christian College...				Collier, &c	
St. Meinrad College.....				Thalheimer's Ancient History..... Barnes' United States History..... Barnes' English History.....	12 12 12
Amity College.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	Hassard's United States Universal History, Gazeau Ecclesiastical History, Alzog..... Barnes' United States Anderson's General	2 10 12 4 4
Norwegian Lutheran Col- lege.	No.....	No.....	No.....	Barnard's United States History, (other books being in Norwegian).	

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Do you favor the memorizing of text-books?	Should text-books be retained?	Have you a class library or reservation of books?	To what number of historical works have your classes access?	Is access easy or restricted?	Is your library for reference, only or circulation?	Do public libraries give special aid or privilege to your department?	Do your classes meet in a library or within easy reach of historical works?	Are historical works kept in class-room for immediate use?
Only for the young students.	Retained.	Three		Easy....	Some books are for reference only.	By one.	The historical society does.	Yes.
Not at all.	Depends upon how used.	No.....	200 c.....	Easy....	Circulating.	No....	No.....	No.
Only for sake of skeleton.	Yes.....	Yes.....		Easy....	Circulating.	No....	Yes.....	No.
Slightly	For reference.	No.....		Easy....		No....	No.....	No.
No.....	Yes.....	No.....	3,000.....	Easy....	For reference except by special permission.	No....	No.....	No.
No.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	1,000; a fair library.	Easy....	Circulating.	No....	Yes.....	Yes.
No.....	As a manual.	No.....	Very rich historical library.	Very easy.	Circulating.	No....	Within easy reach.	Yes.
Very little.			500 c.....	Easy....	Circulating.	No....		Yes.
No.....	Yes.....	Have alcoves.	Several; 100.	Easy....	Circulating.			
No.....	Yes.....	A small one.	30 c.....	Easy....	Circulating.	No....	In theological department.	
No.....	Yes.....				Circulating.	No....		
Very much.	Yes.....	A few	20 c.....	Somewhat restricted	Circulating.	No....	No.....	
Some	Yes.....	No.....		Easy....	Both.....	No....	No.....	No.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Do your classes visit places of historical interest in the vicinity?	Do they collect materials for local history?	Is there in your neighborhood a local historical museum?	Names of text-books used.	No. of pages assigned for an average lesson.
Kansas State University...	No.....	No.....	Yes.....	Freeman's General Sketch..... Roman History..... Greek History..... Roman Life and Greek Life..... Guizot's History Civilization..... English History (Green)..... Lodge's American Colonies..... Bolle's Financial History..... United States Federalist..... Andrews' Manual United States Constitution..... Americal Politics..... French Revolution.....	
Berea College.....			Yes.....	Higginson's United States..... Barnes' United States..... Swinton's Outlines..... Shaw's History..... English Literature.....	10 8 12
Centre College.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	Harper's United States..... Anderson's English..... Thalheimer's General..... Ridpath's United States..... Smith's Greece..... Liddell's Rome..... Sime's Germany.....	
Central University.....				Green's Short History of England..... Barnes' United States..... Sheldon's Historical Studies..... Creighton's Rome..... Bible History.....	12
St. Charles College.....				Kearney's United States..... Scudder's United States..... Fredet's Ancient and Modern.....	
Straight University.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	Miss Busch Berard's United States..... Anderson's General History..... Green's Shorter Course English History..... Smith's Bible History.....	
Harvard University.....					
Adrian College.....	No.....	Have a very fine collection.		Barnes' United States..... Swinton's Outlines..... Green's Short History of the English People..... Guizot's Lectures on Historical Civilization.....	8 15
Hope College.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	Barnes' United States..... Goodrich's England..... Smith's Greek and Roman..... Anderson's Ancient and Modern..... Guizot's Civilization, Historical Lectures.....	
Carleton College.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	Scudder's United States..... Barnes' Ancient..... Myer's Mediæval and Modern..... English History..... Epochs of History, three volumes..... Political History of United States.....	7 6-7 6-7 20
Harperville College.....	No.....	No.....	No.....	United States History..... General History..... Monteith's Comparative Geography..... Holmes' United States History..... Carlton's Elements General History.....	5 6

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Do you favor the memorizing of text-books?	Should text-books be retained?	Have you a class library or reservation of books?	To what number of historical works have your classes access?	Is access easy or restricted?	Is your library for reference only or circulation?	Do public libraries give special aid or privilege to your department?	Do your classes meet in a library or within easy reach of historical works?	Are historical works kept in class-room for immediate use?
Very little..	Yes.....	Yes.....	A b o u t 2,500.	Easy.....	Circulating.	Yes...	Always...	Yes.
No.....	Yes.....	No.....					Sometimes	Shall in future
No.....	Yes.....	No.....		Easy.....	Circulating.	No....	No.....	No.
Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....				No....	No.....	No.
But little..	For less advanced students.	Yes.....		Easy.....				
No.....	Retained with care.	Yes.....	Very few.	Easy.....	Circulating.	No....		Yes.
Not at all..	Retained as helps or guides.	Yes.....	1,000 volumes.	Easy.....	Circulating.	Yes...	Yes.....	Yes.
No.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	3,000.....	Easy.....	Circulating.	No....	No.....	Yes.
No.....	Yes.....	No.....	2,000.....	Easy.....	Circulating.	No....	No.....	No.
Not at all..	Yes.....	Not permanent.	A good proportion of 6,500 volumes.	Easy.....	Circulating.	No....	Yes.....	Yes.
Partly	Yes.....	No.....	18 or 20 different authors.	Easy.....	Circulating.	No....		

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Do your classes visit places of historical interest in the vicinity?	Do they collect materials for local history?	Is there in your neighborhood a local historical museum?	Names of text-books used.	No. of pages assigned for an average lesson.
University of Mississippi..	No.....	No.....	No.....	Freeman's General Sketch.....	(a)
Washington University ...	S o m e - times.	Yes.....	Yes.....	Andrews' Manual United States Constitution. Student's Hume	10-20
Stewartsville College	No.....	No.....	No.....	Student's France	
Canisius College.....	No.....	No.....		Bryce's Holy Roman Empire	
Madison University				Freeman's General Sketch	8
Ohio State University				Barnes' United States History.....	10
Wittenberg College		No.....	No.....	Wilson's Outlines	
Heidelberg College	No.....	No.....	Yes.....	No text-books used	
Pacific University.....				Hallam's Middle Ages	
Villanova College	Yes.....			Lodge's Modern Europe	
Brown University	Classes not as such.	Yes.....	Yes.....	Müller's Political History of Recent Times. Johnston's United States	
College of Charleston.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	Swinton's Outlines	
Bloomington College	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Ridpath's United States	10
Central Tennessee College .	Not as classes.		No.....	Berard's History of England.....	15
University of Virginia	No.....	No.....	No.....	Wilson's Outlines	5-15
University of Wisconsin..	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Scudder's United States	
Ripon College	No.....	No.....	No.....	Thalheimer's Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern. Guizot's Civilization	
Napa College.....	No.....	No.....	Yes.....	Peter Parley's History	
				Barnes, Anderson, and Higginson	8-10
				Thalheimer's General.....	4-5
				Guizot	7
				Historia Ecclesiastica	
				Nonter's Ancient	
				Fredet's Ancient and Modern	
				Burke's Lingard	
				Quackenbos' United States	
				Smith and Liddell	
				Freeman's Outlines	
				Macaulay, Grote, Mommsen, &c....	4
				Ridpath's United States	8
				Thalheimer's Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern.	6
				Ridpath's United States, Anderson's General.	2-4
				Smith's Greece, Merivale's Rome, Gibbon's Abridged, Taylor's Modern History.	25-40
				Freeman's General Sketch, Anderson's Med. and Mod., Anderson's English, Green's History English People, Stillé's Studies of Mediæval History.	
				Barnes' United States, Leighton's Rome, Smith's Greece, Barnes' Ancient History, Lord's Modern Europe, Guizot's History of Civilization.	8-10

a No special number of pages assigned.

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Do you favor the memorizing of text-books?	Should text-books be retained?	Have you a class library or reservation of books?	To what number of historical works have your classes access?	Is access easy or restricted?	Is your library for reference only or circulation?	Do public libraries give special aid or privilege to your department?	Do your classes meet in a library or within easy reach of historical works?	Are historical works kept in class-room for immediate use?
Not at all..	As a skeleton.	No.....	A large number.	Not very easy.	Circulating.	No....	No	
No.....	Yes.....	No.....	1,000 c....	Easy....	Circulating.	Yes...	Near one..	Yes.
No.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	25			No....	No.....	Often.
Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....			Reference.	No....	No.....	No.
No.....	For elementary work.	Not now..	4,000.....	Easy....	Circulating.	No....	Yes.....	Yes.
Not at all..	Yes.....	Yes.....	500 or 600	Easy....	Circulating.	No....	No	No.
No.....	Yes.....	No.....	Considerable.		Circulating.	Yes ..	No.....	No.
Partly	Yes.....	No.....				No....	No.....	
No.....	Yes.....	No.....	3,000.....	Easy....	Circulating.	No....	Sometimes	
.....	Yes.....			Easy....	Circulating.			
No.....	Yes.....	No.....	A noble and well-stocked library.	Easy....	Circulating.	Yes...	Near one..	Yes.
Partly	Yes.....	Yes.....		Easy...	Circulating.	No....	Near one..	
No.....	No.....	No.....	Small number.	Easy....	Circulating.	No....		
Very little.	Yes.....	No.....	50.....	Restricted.	Circulating.	No....	Yes.....	No.
No.....	Partly	No.....	Extensive.	Easy....	Circulating.	No....	No.....	No.
No.....	Yes.....	To a certain extent.	Many thousand.	Easy....	Chiefly reference.	No....		No.
No.....	Yes.....	No.....	500.....	Restricted.	Circulating.	No....	Yes.....	No.
Yes; about 10 per cent.	Yes.....	No.....	Some	Easy....			No.....	Some.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Do your classes visit places of historical interest in the vicinity?	Do they collect materials for local history?	Is there in your neighborhood a local historical museum?	Names of text-books used.	No. of pages assigned for an average lesson.
Columbia College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Freeman's Series: Germany, France, England.	12-15
University of Michigan ...	No.....	No.....	No.....	Müller's History of Recent Times. Lodge's Modern Europe, Green's Short History of English People.	20
Wellesley College	Yes.....			Guizot's History of Civilization...	12
Smith College	No.....	No.....	Yes.....	Thalheimer: Grecian, Roman, Church, Beginnings of Middle Ages.	7
Trinity College	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Eliot's History of United States, Freeman's General Sketch, Guizot's History of Civilization, Guizot's Representative Government, Seeböhm's Era of Protestant Revolution, Creighton's Age of Elizabeth.	12-20

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Do you favor the memorizing of text-books?	Should text-books be retained?	Have you a class library or reservation of books?	To what number of historical works have your classes access?	Is access easy or restricted?	Is your library for reference only or circulation?	Do public libraries give special aid or privilege to your department?	Do your classes meet in a library or within easy reach of historical works?	Are historical works kept in class-room for immediate use?
Yes; for lower grades.	Yes.....	Yes.....	15,000.....	Easy.....	Both.....	Yes...	Yes.....	Yes.....
Only the substance.	Yes.....	Yes.....	Extensive.	Easy.....			Only seminary.	Yes.....
No.....	Only Guizot's.	Yes.....	4,500.....	Easy.....	Both.....	Yes...	No.....	Yes.....
Very little.	Yes.....	No.....	2,000.....		Both.....	Yes...	No.....	No.....
Only principal events and dates.	Yes; if properly used.			Easy.....				

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Is attention given to his- torical and physical geog- raphy?	Are these important in con- nection with history?	Is map-drawing used?	Is crayon illustration used at recitation?	To what extent is art applied to illustrate history?	Has historical fiction been found helpful?
St. Ignatius College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....			Illustrated charts are much used.	S o m e - what.
University of Colorado	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Seldom .	Not at all.....	Yes.....
Wesleyan University	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Some now prepar- ing engravings, &c., for lantern slides.	Slightly
Illinois College	Physical geogra- phy.	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	Not at all.....	Yes.....
University of Illinois.....	Physical geogra- phy.	Yes.....	No.....	No.....	A good art gallery is open to stu- dents.	Yes....
Indiana University	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....		Use photographs in teaching Eng- lish History.	Yes.....
Wabash College	Some		Yes.....	No.....	None	Not much
Franklin College	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	No.....	Not at all.....	
Hanover College.....	In prepar- atory class.	Yes.....	Some ..	Yes.....		Some ..
Union Christian College ...	Yes.....		Not much	Some ..		
St. Meinrad College	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....			
Amity College	Yes.....	Yes.....	But lit- tle.	No.....	No	No.....
Norwegian Lutheran Col- lege.	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	No.....	Very little	
Kansas State University ..	Yes.....	Yes.....	S o m e - what.	Seldom .	Walls are crowded with photo- graphs, maps, charts, engrav- ings, &c.	Not much
Berea College.....		Yes.....	S o m e - what.	Little...	Very little	S o m e - what.
Centre College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	A little.	Rarely..	No	But little.
Central University	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	Not at all.....	But little.
St. Charles College.....	Yes.....		S o m e - times.			Not very
Straight University.....	But little .	Yes.....	Largely.	No.....	Not at all.....	Yes.....

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

What books are most helpful in this way?	Are literature and art regarded as companion studies of history?	With what is history best associated?	Is history taught as preparatory to any other study?	Is history required for admission to any course of study in your institution?	Which sex shows the greater aptitude for history?	Does one sex do better in a certain line of study?
Mythology in the classical course.	Some-what.	Especially with language and philosophy.			(?)	(?)
Scott's and Bulwer's ..	Yes...	Political science.			Females in general history.	
.....	Literature is.	Political science.	No.....	No.....		No.....
Mrs. Stowe's, &c., Scott's, Bulwer's, Tennyson's, Chaucer's, Shakespeare's, Cooper's, Irving's, Hawthorne's, Judd's, Whittier's, Longfellow's, Holland's, Tourgee's	Yes...	Language, philosophy, political science.	To literature and political economy.			
Scott's, Bulwer's, Kingsley's, Ebers', Hall's, Shakespeare's, Schiller's.	Yes...	Political science and philosophy.	No.....	No.....	Average equal; male higher.	
.....	Yes...	Political science, language, and philosophy.		General history.		Women prefer literature and art in history; men politics.
.....	Yes...	Language and political science.	No.....	No.....	(?)	
.....		Political science.			(?)	
.....	Yes...	Political science.	For all....	Yes.....	(?)	
.....		Political science.		English and American history.	e males memorize better; males the more interested.	
.....	Yes					
.....	Literature somewhat; art not at all.	(?)	No.....	To classical and scientific dpts.	Female average is better.	
.....	No.....	Language.....				
Kingsley's Hypatia, Westward Ho! Scott's novels, two or three of Bulwer's, Macaulay's poems, Lowell's and Whittier's poems.		Political science.			Almost equal.	Men excel in financial and political history.
Scott's poems and ballads; Longfellow's and Whittier's.	Yes...	Political science.	No.....	No.....		
.....						
.....	Literature is.	Political science.				
.....		Languages and philosophy.				
Scott's novels; Irving's	No....	Language	Yes.....	No.....	Female ...	Males in mathematics; females in language.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Is attention given to historical and physical geography?	Are these important in connection with history?	Is map-drawing used?	Is crayon illustration used at recitation?	To what extent is art applied to illustrate history?	Has historical fiction been found helpful?
Harvard University	No; which is a matter of regret.	Yes.....	Yes.....	Some-what.	Little done in this direction.	Yes....
Adrian College	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	Some-what.	None systematically.	Yes....
Hope College	No.....	Yes.....	No.....	No.....	Not much.....	Yes..
Carleton College	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	None, except illustrations found in books.	Yes.....
Harperville College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Some ...	No.	To no extent	No.....
University of Mississippi..	Yes.....	Yes.....	Not yet.	No.....	Not at all.....	No.....
Washington University....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Little...	No.....	To a great extent .	Very ...
Stewartsville College	Yes.....		Some-what.	Part of time.	To no extent.....	No.....
Canisius College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....		To no extent	Some ...
Madison University	Yes.....	Yes.....	Not yet.	No.....	Not yet.....	Yes ..
Ohio State University	All too little.	Yes.....				But little
Wittenberg College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....		No.....	Not at all.....	No.....
Heidelberg College	Regular study; yes.	One of the eyes of history; yes.		Yes.....		Greatly
Pacific University.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	No.....	We have synchronized charts and maps of ancient and modern countries.	Yes; very
Villanova College.....		Yes.....				
Brown University	Considerable.	Yes.....	No.....	No.....	To a great extent .	Yes.....
College of Charleston	Yes	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.....	"I make constant use of illustrations."	
Bloomington College.....	Yes; 60 hours in preparatory department.	Yes.....	No.....	No.....		Very ...
Central Tennessee College.	Yes.....	Yes.....				Yes.....
University of Virginia.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No.	Students may attend lectures in art department; some lectures on architecture.	Yes.....

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

What books are most helpful in this way?	Are literature and art regarded as companion studies of history?	With what is history best associated?	Is history taught as preparatory to any other study?	Is history required for admission to any course of study in your institution?	Which sex shows the greater aptitude for history?	Does one sex do better in a certain line of study?
.....	Distinctly.	Depends upon education of individual student.				
Charles Kingsley's; Eber's Egyptian novels, Scott's, &c.	Yes...	Political science.	Yes.....	To political science.	Boys grasp principles better.	
Scott's novels.....	Yes...	Language.....	No.....	No.....	Male.....	
Scott's novels: Romola, Hypatia, Old Town Folks, Bay Path, St. George, and St. Michael.	Yes...	Political science.	No.....	No.....	Male.....	
.....	Literature is.	Political science, language, philosophy, equally.	No.....	Yes.....	No difference.	
.....	Yes...	Political science, language, philosophy, equally.	No.....	Yes.....	Neither...	No.
.....	Yes...	Political science.		Yes.....	Young women.	Yes.
.....	No.....	Language.....	No.....	No.....	Females ..	Females in history and literature; males in mathematics and classics.
Walter Scott's.....	Yes...	Literature.....		No.....		
.....	Yes...	Language.....				
.....		Political science.	No.....		No difference.	Females not creative.
.....	Yes...		No.....	No difference.		
Any standard author that had relation to period we were studying.	Yes...	Language, philosophy, political science, equally.				
Shakespeare, Scott, Longfellow, Hugo.	Yes...	Political science.			Boys better and poorer.	Girls do better in remembering facts, and express ideas better.
.....	Yes...	Philosophy.....				
Poems, Scott's novels, G. Eliot's Romola, Ebers' novels, Felix Dalus's, Chas. Reade's Cloister and Hearth, Schiller's Plays, &c.	Yes...	Political science.	No.....	No.....		
Tennyson's Dream of Fair Women.	Yes...	Language.....	No.....	Yes.....		
.....	Yes...	Political science.	Part of general course.	No.....	Females ..	Males in mathematics and natural science.
Shakespeare, Scott, Kingsley.	Yes...	Political science.				
.....	Yes...	Political science.	No.....	Only in art dept'tment.	Female ...	Females in topical method.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study

Name of the institution.	Is attention given to his- torical and physical geog- raphy?	Are these important in con- nection with history?	Is map-drawing used?	Is crayon illustration used at recitation?	To what extent is art applied to illustrate history?	Has historical fiction been found helpful?
University of Wisconsin ..	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No	Teachers ac c o m- pany students to art galleries, &c.	Yes.....
Ripon College	Yes.....	Yes.....	No		Not systematically.	Yes.....
Napa College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No	Very lit- tle.		
Columbia College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Yes; by teachers.	Yes; by teachers.	Many pictures and Adams' history charts.	Yes.....
University of Michigan....	Yes.....	Yes.....	No	No	A little	Very ...
Wellesley College	Incident- ally of course.	Yes.....	Yes.....	No	A little	Yes.....
Smith College	Yes.....	Yes.....	No	No	Not at all	No
Trinity College	Historical geography.	Yes.....	No	No	Not at all	But lit- tle.

of history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

What books are most helpful in this way?	Are literature and art regarded as companion studies of history?	With what is history best associated?	Is history taught as preparatory to any other study?	Is history required for admission to any course of study in your institution?	Which sex shows the greater aptitude for history?	Does one sex do better in a certain line of study?
Bulwer, Kingsley, Hugo, Shakespeare, Scott.	Yes...	Political science.	No.....	No.....		Females do better text-book work.
.....	Hist. elect.	Political science.	Not distinctively.	Yes.....	Equally...	
.....		Political science.	Yes.....	Yes.....		
.....		Philosophy, language, political science.	No.....		Female...	
.....	Yes...	Language.....	No.....	No.....	Male.....	
.....	Yes...	Political science.	Yes.....	No.....		
.....	So regarded but not so used.	Needs the concurrence of all.	No.....	No.....	Girls repeat history like "Pretty poll." (?)	
.....	No		No.....	No.....		

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study of

Name of the institution.	Do the sexes differ in the powers of historical apprehension?	In what other subjects are the best historical students most successful?	Does the question of sex affect this?	Give the time of your special preparation for teaching history.
St. Ignatius College	(?)		(?)	
University of Colorado				2 years in America, 4 in Germany.
Wesleyan University				3 years in private study, 1 year in German university.
Illinois College		(?)		
University of Illinois	Females excel in memorizing and reciting.	In all departments except the mathematical.		Only general preparation.
Indiana University	No	Languages; arts; philosophy; literature; politics.		
Wabash College				
Franklin College				
Hanover College	None	Literature		
Union Christian College		Languages and political science.		No special
St. Meinrad College				2 years
Amity College	Young men excel.	(?)		3 years
Norwegian Lutheran College		(?)		8 years
Kansas State University		In political, philosophical, literary and linguistic studies.	Women prefer literature.	Usual collegiate preparation.
Berea College				
Centre College				
Central University		Literature; political science.		
St. Charles College				
Straight University	In philosophy of history boys excel.	Literary studies ..		
Harvard University				
Adrian College		Political science and literature.		3 years
Hope College		Literature and languages.	(?)	No special professor of history.
Carleton College		In any but mathematics or science.		Private reading and experience in all grades of schools.
Harperville College		Literature; languages.	No	20 months
University of Mississippi		In all but scientific and mathematical studies.	No	General reading of a lifetime in several languages.
Washington University	Males superior	Literature, languages, &c.	Women care least for mathematics,	

history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Number years of experience in teaching.	Number hours given weekly to historical instruction.	Number hours given yearly to historical instruction.	Salary of historical teacher.	How is the historical knowledge of your students tested?
2 years	5 hours in private, 6 hours in college.		\$1,800	By oral questions as well as written examination. By frequent written examinations.
				By questions, reports, and written examinations.
29 years	10 hours w'kly		1,800	Long written examinations.
12 years		305 hours yearly.	2,000	Questions, class discussion, and written examinations.
7 years	All day		1,650 and assistant.	Recitations, essays, oral reports, class discussions; don't care for written examinations.
4½ years			900	Recitations and written examinations. Questions in class.
5 years	1 hour	3 hours to other studies.	1,000	Free narrations; written examination. Written examinations.
3 years	1 hour	5 hours to other studies.	800	
3 years				Free narration; answers; written exercises; discussion in class.
3 years				
	10 hours	130 hours		Written and oral examinations.
				By free narration and answers to questions.
		550 hours	2,000	By free narration, questions, and written examinations.
				Free narrations, answers to questions, and written examinations.
	20 hours		1,500	Free narration or written examinations. Written examinations.
				Frequent questions; monthly written examination.
				Free narration; monthly written examinations.
3 years		200 hours	1,000	Written examinations twice a year. Written examination at close of each term; questions in class. Written examinations.
7 years		369 hours	1,500	Free narration; class discussion; written examinations.
20 months	3½ hours	75 hours	400	Direct answers to questions.
	2 hours		(a)	Free narrations; written examinations, &c.
16 years	15 hours	540 hours	2,350	By free narration, questions, and class discussion.

a No salary as professor of history.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study of

Name of the institution.	Do the sexes differ in the powers of historical apprehension?	In what other subjects are the best historical students most successful?	Does the question of sex affect this?	Give the time of your special preparation for teaching history.
Stewartsville College.....	Not noticeably.	In literature.....		
Canisius College.....				5 hours a day ..
Madison University				4 years
Ohio State University	Very little.....	(?)		
Wittenberg College	Males can reason better.	Literature; languages.		
Heidelberg College	None whatever.			
Pacific University.....	Boys have better judgment.	Literary; philosophy; political subjects.		
Villanova College				
Brown University				15 years general, 4 years special.
College of Charleston.....		Literature; languages; arts.		
Bloomington College		Literature; philosophy, political studies.		
Central Tennessee College.....		In all other studies		
University of Virginia.....				None required; much desired.
University of Wisconsin.....	Girls not original.	Political science; literature; language.		
Ripon College	Young men excel.	Literature; mathematics.		
Napa College		Literature; language; art.		Ordinary university course.
Columbia College		Political and legal science.		
University of Michigan.....		Political science and literature.		
Wellesley College		Political science; then philosophy, literature, language.		2 years
Smith College		Political science; literature.		Collegiate course and 2½ years in German university.
Trinity College				

history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

Number years of experience in teaching.	Number hours given weekly to historical instruction.	Number hours given yearly to historical instruction.	Salary of historical teacher.	How is the historical knowledge of your students tested?
.....				Direct answers to questions and monthly written examinations.
4 years	2 hours		(a)	Free narration; direct answers; written examinations.
.....	1 hour		b\$1,600	Criticism of essays.
.....				By free narration; direct answers to questions; class discussion and written examinations.
15 years	3 hours			Free narration and written examinations.
.....				Oral examinations.
8 years	2 hours daily		1,000	Free narration by topics is the basis; oral examinations.
.....			(a)	Written examinations.
5 years	3 hours	115 hours		Free narration; direct answers; class discussion; examination of note blanks; written examinations.
20 years	5 hours		2,500	Constant reviews, illustrations, cross-examinations, &c.
.....				Free narration and written examinations.
30 years	2 hours		500	Free narration; written examinations.
40 years			c3,000	By detail questions daily, and general questions at graduation.
20 years	13 hours			Oral questions; written examinations.
10 years	20 hours		900	Written examinations.
15 years	10 to 15 hours		1,200	
.....				Free narration and quiz.
.....				By various methods.
5 years	12 hours		1,200	Free narration, quiz, discussion, written examinations, &c.
10 years	2 hours			Recitations; abstracts; written examinations.
.....				Free narration; quiz; written examinations; note-books.
No salary.			b \$1,900 soon.	c For each professor.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study of

Name of the institution.	Are written examinations regularly required?	Should history be allowed more time?	What reforms are needed in the method, &c., of teaching history?	Should history be specialized?
St. Ignatius College	2 per annum ..	(?)		Yes.....
University of Colorado				
Wesleyan University		Yes.....	History should be taught by those giving their whole time to it.	Yes.....
Illinois College	Yes.....	Yes.....	Time given to discussion of current public events.	Yes.....
University of Illinois	Yes.....	Yes.....		
Indiana University	Yes.....	Not among us.	None needed here. Teacher should have no more than 3 classes per day.	Yes.....
Wabash College	Yes.....	Yes.....		
Franklin College	Yes.....	Yes.....		
Hanover College	Yes.....	Not more than we give it.		
Union Christian College ...	Yes.....		Special professor for history..	Yes.....
St. Meinrad College				
Amity College	Yes.....	Yes.....	Special work to the specially prepared.	
Norwegian Lutheran College.		No.....		
Kansas State University ..	Yes.....			
Berea College				
Centre College	Yes.....	Yes.....		Yes.....
Central University	Yes.....	Yes.....		
St. Charles College		Yes.....	Make it interesting and almost amusing.	
Straight University.....	Yes.....	Not practicable with us.		
Harvard University	Yes.....			Yes.....
Adrian College	Yes.....	Yes.....	Teacher should be a man of broad general culture.	Yes.....
Hope College	Yes.....	Not here.....		No.....
Carleton College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....		
Harperville College.....		Not with 4-year course.		
University of Mississippi..	Yes.....	Yes.....	Less time should be given. Professor of history should teach nothing else, and should be salaried sufficiently to encourage original investigation.	Yes.....
Washington University ...	Once a month.	Not here.....	Should be work of a special teacher.	Yes.....
Stewartsville College	Yes.....	Perhaps not ..		
Canisius College	Yes.....			Yes.....

history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

How can interest in historical studies be increased?	Are prizes offered?	Are prize essays published?	What is general value of history?	How can it be made more useful to the community?	Is your department connected with any local historical society?
More time and carefully prepared teachers.	Yes..... No.....	Yes..... Yes.....	Broadens mind; teaches ethics.		None. Yes.
By showing its advantage ..	No.....	Yes.....	Shows relation of cause and effect.	By lectures and the press.	Yes.
By getting scholarly men to teach it, and offering good salaries. History should be taught as a united story.	No..... No.....	No..... No.....	Inferior to none .. Broadens mind; increases com- mon sense, love of country, char- ity, and knowl- edge of human nature.		No. No.
	No.....	No.....	Does away with narrowness.		No.
	Yes.....				
	No.....				
Make the subject more prominent in teachers' conventions and exami- nations.	No.....	No.....	(?)		
By having able teachers....	No.....				
	No.....	No.....	Assists memory and awakens a philosophic spirit.		
By full endowments	No..... Some- times.	No..... Yes.....			Yes.
	Yes.....	Yes.....			No.
	No.....	No.....		By series of lectures.	No.
Endowment of professor- ships of history, encour- agement of useful publica- tion.	Yes.....				
	No.....	No.....	Not equal to math- ematics or classics for mental disci- pline.		No.
	No.....	No.....			No.
By establishing an historical society with library and by offering prizes for es- says.	No.....	No.....	Qualifies people to discharge bet- ter their various duties.		No.
Cultivation of interest in local historical studies. Production of able histori- cal fiction. Endowment of historical chairs.	No.....	No.....	Of highest value..		No.
Establishment of special chairs of history, histori- cal libraries, prizes, &c.	No.....		Lessens nervous- ness, &c.		Yes.
	No.....	No.....			No.
Greater generalization instead of restriction to much English and some French history.	Yes.....				No.

Statistical table showing the principal facts relating to the study of

Name of the institution.	Are written examinations regularly required?	Should history be allowed more time?	What reforms are needed in the method, &c., of teaching history?	Should history be specialized?
Madison University	Yes.....	Yes.....		Yes.....
Ohio State University	Yes.....	Yes.....		
Wittenberg College.....	Yes.....	Yes.....	Some work in other departments does the historical teacher good.	No.....
Heidelberg College	No.....			
Pacific University	No.....	Yes.....		Yes.....
Villanova College.....	Yes.....			
Brown University	Yes.....	Yes.....		Yes.....
College of Charleston.....	Yes.....	Yes.....		
Bloomington College.....	Yes.....			
Central Tennessee College.	Yes.....	Yes.....		Yes.....
University of Virginia.....	Only at graduation.	Yes.....	There should be a separate professor for each branch of history.	Yes.....
University of Wisconsin...	Yes.....	Yes.....	Better library facilities.....	
Ripon College	Yes.....	Yes.....	More time.....	Yes.....
Napa College	Yes.....		Let the professor take charge also of some other branches of study which give balance and rest.	
Columbia College.....		Sufficient now.		
University of Michigan....	Yes.....		Closer connection with political economy, finance, diplomacy, &c.	
Wellesley College	Yes, twice a year.		More time.....	
Smith College	Yes.....	Yes.....		Yes.....
Trinity College.....		Yes.....		

history in American universities and colleges—Continued.

How can interest in historical studies be increased?	Are prizes offered?	Are prize essays published?	What is general value of history?	How can it be made more useful to the community?	Is your department connected with any local historical society?
Establishing of fellowships and competitive examinations.	Not yet.				
.....	No.....	No.....	Useful in helping to understand present problems.		Yes.
By exciting interest in the young.	No.....	No.....	For memory, knowledge, reasoning, and culture.		No.
.....	No.....		Complete education.		No.
By historical societies, museums, and lectures on historical topics.	No.....	No.....			Yes.
Mental philosophy to be taught fully.	Yes.....				
Better and more courses of study in our higher institutions of learning.*	Yes.....	No.....		See *.....	Yes.
Train teachers.....	No.....	No.....			Yes.
.....	No.....	No.....	Gives breadth of thought.		No.
By making learning attractive.	No.....	No.....	Generally low.....	By revising course of study.	No.
.....	No.....	Yes.....			No
.....	No.....				
Agitate! agitate! agitate!..	No.....	No.....		By formation of historical clubs, &c.	No.
Better text-books; standard biographies; more reading than study.	No.....	No.....	Very great. It is practical.	By better teachers and better libraries.	No.
.....	Yes.....	Yes.....			Yes.
.....	No.....	No.....			
Better historical preparation in schools. More intimate communication among teachers and writers.	No.....	No.....	Civic education.....		Yes.
Judicious effort of historical scholars.	No.....	No.....	Very great.....	Voluntary associations.	No.
.....	Yes.....				Yes.

Copyright, 1912, by American Medical Association

Date	Place	Patient	Physician	Remarks
Jan 1, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	First visit
Jan 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Second visit
Jan 10, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Third visit
Jan 15, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Fourth visit
Jan 20, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Fifth visit
Jan 25, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Sixth visit
Jan 30, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Seventh visit
Feb 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Eighth visit
Feb 10, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Ninth visit
Feb 15, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Tenth visit
Feb 20, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Eleventh visit
Feb 25, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twelfth visit
Mar 1, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirteenth visit
Mar 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Fourteenth visit
Mar 10, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Fifteenth visit
Mar 15, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Sixteenth visit
Mar 20, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Seventeenth visit
Mar 25, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Eighteenth visit
Mar 30, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Nineteenth visit
Apr 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twentieth visit
Apr 10, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-first visit
Apr 15, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-second visit
Apr 20, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-third visit
Apr 25, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-fourth visit
May 1, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-fifth visit
May 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-sixth visit
May 10, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-seventh visit
May 15, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-eighth visit
May 20, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Twenty-ninth visit
May 25, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirtieth visit
May 30, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-first visit
Jun 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-second visit
Jun 10, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-third visit
Jun 15, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-fourth visit
Jun 20, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-fifth visit
Jun 25, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-sixth visit
Jun 30, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-seventh visit
Jul 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-eighth visit
Jul 10, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Thirty-ninth visit
Jul 15, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Fortieth visit
Jul 20, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Forty-first visit
Jul 25, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Forty-second visit
Jul 30, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Forty-third visit
Aug 5, 1912	Chicago	John Doe	Dr. J. H. Smith	Forty-fourth visit

Paed. Jn. 8 30 85 #49

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 3, 1887

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

AT ITS

MEETING AT WASHINGTON

MARCH 15-17, 1887

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1887

= Geach. p. 1318.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 3, 1887

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

AT ITS

MEETING AT WASHINGTON

MARCH 15-17, 1887



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1887

CONTENTS.

	Page.
Letter of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior	5
List of persons in attendance	7
FIRST SESSION.	
Opening of the proceedings	10
Address by the Commissioner of Education	11
Public Education on the Pacific Coast, by the Hon. F. M. Campbell, of Oakland, Cal.	16
SECOND SESSION.	
The Examination and Certification of Teachers, by Dr. Andrew J. Rickoff, of Yonkers, N. Y.	46
Remarks by Dr. William A. Mowry, of Boston, Mass.	58
THIRD SESSION.	
Civil Service and Public Schools: I, by the Hon. Le Roy D. Brown, of Ohio... ..	63
Discussion by the Hon. B. S. Morgan, of West Virginia	67
the Hon. W. N. Barringer, of Newark, N. J.	69
Civil Service and Public Schools: II, by the Hon. Thomas P. Ballard, of Columbus, Ohio.	71
Discussion by various gentlemen (short remarks)	77
FOURTH SESSION.	
Powers and Duties of School Officers and Teachers: I, by the Hon. A. P. Marble, of Worcester, Mass	80
Remarks	89
Powers and Duties of School Officers and Teachers: II, by the Hon. J. M. Greene, of Long Branch, N. J.	94
Remarks	96
FIFTH SESSION.	
The Best System of County and City Supervision, by the Hon. E. E. Higbee, of Pennsylvania	102
Discussion	105
SIXTH SESSION.	
Industrial Education in Our Public Schools: I, by Col. F. W. Parker, of Normal Park, Ill.	113
The Province of the Public School, by the Hon. J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts	115
Industrial Education in Our Public Schools: II, by the Hon. W. B. Powell, of Washington, D. C.	123

	Page.
What a Small City is Doing in Industrial Education, by the Hon. H. W. Compton, of Toledo, Ohio	129
Further remarks, by Maj. R. Bingham, of Bingham School, North Carolina.	134
SEVENTH SESSION.	
A System of Grading for Country Schools, by the Hon. J. W. Holcombe, of Indiana.....	138
Remarks by various gentlemen.....	145
EIGHTH SESSION.	
Committee Report upon Dr. Rickoff's Paper, by Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, of Cleveland, Ohio.....	155
The Best System of State School Supervision, by the Hon. Warren Easton, of Louisiana.....	156
Remarks: by the Hon. Richard Edwards, of Illinois.....	160
the Hon. Solomon Palmer, of Alabama	164
the Hon. John L. Buchanan, of Virginia.....	167
the Hon. John W. Holcombe, of Indiana.....	170
the Hon. W. H. Anderson, of Wheeling, W. Va.....	173
State Text-Books, by the Hon. F. M. Campbell, of Oakland, Cal.....	173
Resolutions of thanks, &c.....	178
NINTH SESSION.	
Remarks by Maj. R. Bingham, of Bingham School, North Carolina	178
The Nation and the Public Schools, by the Hon. H. W. Blair, U. S. S.....	179
Remarks upon Senator Blair's statement, by the Hon. M. A. Newell, of Maryland.	187
by the Hon. William M. Stewart, U. S. S., of Nevada	188
Education in Alaska, by the Rev. Sheldon Jackson, U. S. General Agent	191
Adjournment	200

LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., July 6, 1887.

SIR: The proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, including the addresses delivered by prominent educationists at the sessions held in this city early in the present year, are respectfully submitted, with the recommendation that the same be printed, as in former years, as a Circular of Information of this Office. The contents seem useful to the educational profession, and particularly to those engaged in the supervision of public school systems.

I have the honor to be, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner.

The Honorable the SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,

Publication approved.

H. L. MULDROW,
Acting Secretary.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

PERSONS IN ATTENDANCE, 1887.

[Names of officers of the Department and of persons taking a prominent part in the proceedings are printed in small capital letters.]

D. W. Abercrombie, Worcester, Mass.

Cyrus Adler, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Jerome Allen, editor "School Journal," New York City.

Hon. W. H. ANDERSON, Superintendent of Schools, Wheeling, W. Va.

Miss Emma S. Atkinson, Normal School, Washington, D. C.

Charles A. Babcock, Oil City, Pa.

J. E. Baker, Washington, D. C.

Hon. THOMAS P. BALLARD, Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio.

Hon. W. N. BARRINGER, Superintendent of Schools, Newark, N. J.

Prof. W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Member of State Board of Education, Louisville, Ky.

Maj. R. BINGHAM, Superintendent of Bingham School, Bingham, N. C.

Hon. H. W. BLAIR, U. S. S., of New Hampshire.

Mrs. H. W. Blair, Manchester, N. H.

N. C. Brackett, Principal Storer College, Harper's Ferry, W. Va.

Mrs. Gertrude Hitz Brown, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass.

Hon. LE ROY D. BROWN, State Commissioner of Common Schools, Columbus, Ohio.

Thomas C. Bruff, County Examiner, Baltimore County, Maryland.

Hon. J. L. BUCHANAN, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Richmond, Va.

Hon. F. M. CAMPBELL, Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, Cal.

Hon. Richard L. Carne, Superintendent of Schools, Alexandria, Va.

Hon. J. H. Chapin, Superintendent of Schools, Meriden, Conn.

Mrs. L. J. K. Clark, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

I. Edwards Clarke, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. W. R. Comings, Superintendent of Schools, Norwalk, Ohio.

Hon. H. W. COMPTON, Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio.

Hon. G. F. T. Cook, Superintendent of Colored Schools, Washington, D. C.

Hon. C. C. DAVIDSON (Secretary of the Department), Superintendent of Schools, Alliance, Ohio.

Hon. E. H. Davis, Superintendent of Schools, Chelsea, Mass.

Hon. N. H. R. DAWSON, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

Miss Mary Desha, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. J. W. DICKINSON, Secretary of State Board of Education, Boston, Mass.

Hon. H. A. Disert, Superintendent of Schools of Franklin County, Pennsylvania.

Hon. J. A. Dix, Superintendent of Schools, Elizabeth, New Jersey.

Hon. N. C. Dougherty, Superintendent of Schools, Peoria, Ill.

Hon. WARREN EASTON, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Baton Rouge, La.

Hon. A. W. Edson, Superintendent of Schools, Jersey City, N. J.

Hon. RICHARD EDWARDS, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Ill.

John C. Ellis, Chicago, Ill.

Hon. S. M. FINGER, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh, N. C.

A. P. Flint, Philadelphia, Pa.

Charles N. Gaintor, New York City.

William H. Gardiner,* Chief Clerk, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

E. J. Garrison, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Richard H. Gorgas, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. J. K. Gotwals, Superintendent of Schools, Norristown, Pa.

Hon. AARON GOVE, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colo.

Hon. J. M. GREENE, Superintendent of Schools, Long Branch, N. J.

William M. Griffin, teacher, Newark, N. J.

Daniel B. Hagar, Principal Normal School, Salem, Mass.

J. D. Haile, Grundy Centre, Iowa.

Mrs. M. D. S. Haynie, Illinois State Normal School.

R. P. Henry, Publisher, Richmond, Va.

Hon. E. E. HIGBEE, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

B. A. HINSDALE, LL. D., Cleveland, Ohio.

Hon. J. W. HOLCOMBE,† State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Indianapolis, Ind.

George E. Hunt, Washington, D. C.

Dr. SHELDON JACKSON, General Agent of Education in Alaska.

Hon. D. B. JOHNSON, Superintendent of Schools, Columbia, S. C.

* Resigned May 31, 1887.

† Chief Clerk, U. S. Bureau of Education, June 1, 1887.

- Hon. H. S. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Erie, Pa.
 Hon. A. P. Kinsley, Superintendent of Schools, Franklin, Pa.
 Hon. A. G. Lane, Superintendent of Schools, Cook County, Illinois.
 W. O. Langan, Washington, D. C.
 Hon. O. E. Latham, Superintendent of Schools, Danville, Ill.
 Rev. George O. Little, Washington, D. C.
 Hon. G. J. LUCKEY, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Hon. John Macdonald, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka, Kans.
 Hon. A. P. MARBLE, Superintendent of Schools, Worcester, Mass.
 Artemas Martin, Librarian U. S. Coast Survey, Washington, D. C.
 Hon. H. A. Maurice, Superintendent of Schools, Manchester, Va.
 Hon. J. E. McCaha, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.
 M. H. McWhorter, Georgia.
 M. A. Mess, Esq., Washington, D. C.
 Mrs. H. E. Monroe, teacher, Atchison, Kans.
 Prof. H. P. Montgomery, Supervising Principal, Washington, D. C.
 Prof. W. S. Montgomery, Supervising Principal, Washington, D. C.
 Hon. B. S. MORGAN, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Charleston, W. Va.
 John Morrow, Allegheny, Pa.
 Hon. E. P. Moses, Superintendent of Schools, Raleigh, N. C.
 Dr. W. A. MOWRY, Editor of "Education," Boston, Mass.
 F. R. Neighbors, Frederick, Md.
 Hon. M. A. NEWELL, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Baltimore, Md.
 Hon. SOLOMON PALMER, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Montgomery, Ala.
 Hon. S. J. Pardee, Superintendent of Schools, Flushing, N. Y.
 Col. FRANCIS W. PARKER, Principal Normal School, Normal Park, Ill.
 Col. J. A. M. Passmore, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Prof. Edward A. Paul, Principal of High School, Washington, D. C.
 George A. Plimpton, New York City.
 Hon. A. W. Potter, Superintendent of Schools, Wilkes Barre, Pa.
 Hon. W. B. POWELL, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.
 Henderson Presnell, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
 Zalmon Richards, teacher, Washington, D. C.
 Dr. ANDREW J. RICKOFF, Yonkers, N. Y.
 C. B. Ruggles, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 William E. Sheldon, President National Association, Boston, Mass.
 Hon. W. H. Shelley, Superintendent of Schools, York, Pa.
 Hon. Edward Smith, Superintendent of Schools, Syracuse, N. Y.
 Miss Lucilla Smith, Normal School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Hon. H. C. SPEER, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Topeka, Kans.

Hon. G. A. Spindler, County Superintendent of Schools, Washington County, Pennsylvania.

Hon. WILLIAM M. STEWART, ex-United States Senator from Nevada.

J. E. Stout, teacher, Washington, D. C.

F. E. Upton, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Charles Warren, Statistician of the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. W. B. WEBB, Commissioner of the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.

Hon. H. G. Weimer, Superintendent of Schools, Allegheny County, Pennsylvania.

Miss Belle Wilbur, teacher, Maple Rapids, Mich.

I. R. Williams, Seattle, Wash. Ter.

Hon. J. Ormond Wilson, Washington, D. C.

S. R. Winchell, Boston, Mass.

Hon. Henry A. Wise, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.

I. N. Wyckoff, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Hon. CHARLES S. YOUNG, President of the Department, Reno, Nev.

Hon. B. M. Zettler, Superintendent of Schools, Macon, Ga.

FIRST SESSION.

The Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association met in the hall of the National Museum, Washington, D. C., Tuesday, March 15, 1887, at 10 o'clock a. m.

After an exchange of greetings the president of the Department, Hon. CHARLES S. YOUNG, of Nevada, said:

Before proceeding with the literary exercises, is there anything of a business nature to come before the meeting?

Hon. LE ROY D. BROWN, of Ohio: The fact has reached me that some of those down for discussion are not present. Having conversed with a number of members, we have thought it desirable, in case these persons do not arrive, that if the papers which are read extend over 45 minutes, there will be no objection to having them read in full. I suppose it is not necessary to make a motion that the Chair be authorized to have this done.

The Chair then presented to the Department William B. Webb, esq., one of the Commissioners of the District of Columbia. Mr. Webb welcomed the audience to the capital as a proper place for its deliberations.

He spoke eloquently of the evergrowing importance of public instruction as a factor in local, industrial, political, and national life, and emphasized the importance of all means for the instruction and retention of trained and competent teachers in the public school service. He mentioned among other points of current interest the danger of permitting the control of public schools to pass into unworthy hands,

and the general interest taken everywhere in the teaching of physiology and hygiene with reference to the abuse of alcohol and narcotics.

He closed by offering special facilities for examining public affairs in the District to all members of the Department.

To this welcome the president, Hon. C. S. Young, responded in appropriate terms. Then, turning to matters directly concerning the Department, he upheld the value and advisability of its separate winter meetings, as superior for business purposes to those held in summer; recalled the part taken by the Department twenty-one years ago in the establishment of the National Bureau of Education, as an instance of its beneficent action in educational interests; and urged similar definite action by it respecting current unsettled questions of interest.

Among these, President Young was of opinion that direct action in aid of education, superior as well as elementary and public, from the resources of the nation, as desired by Washington and his contemporaries, was advisable. Why, he urged, should there not be a national normal school? There surely is work enough for it to do, while not one in ten of the teaching force of the country has received any pedagogical training. The nation's aid in exterminating illiteracy is another point for which the Department in its winter meetings should labor.

Mr. Young then presented to the Department the Hon. N. H. R. DAWSON, U. S. Commissioner of Education.

ADDRESS OF MR. DAWSON.

Mr. President and Gentlemen : It gives me great pleasure to meet this assembly of distinguished scholars and schoolmen. As the honored representatives of State and city systems of education, your deliberations will attract, as they deserve, public interest, and your views upon the many topics that will claim your attention will be accepted as the authoritative expressions of the best minds engaged in the public school work of the country. I am sure that no essential differences in regard to the leading subjects of discussion will divide your councils, but that your deliberations will all tend to the improvement of methods and will illustrate and illuminate the various topics that will be considered, and that your proceedings will be marked by harmony of action and conspicuous success.

In compliance with your request, I have prepared a brief outline of the work of the Bureau of Education since my connection with the Office. Recognizing the great debt that is due the members of the association as the generous friends of the Bureau, I need not assure you that all of its agencies will be used to aid and assist you in your meeting, and to make your presence in this city pleasant and profitable.

In accepting the position of Commissioner of Education I knew that I would incur no small amount of responsibility and labor; but I felt that I could rely upon the generous support and hearty co-operation of the earnest educators of the country in the honest endeavor I should

make, in the administration of the office, to do all in my power to keep abreast of the increasing demands of education, and to meet the just expectations of that large and intelligent class who have consecrated themselves to the work of public instruction. As the successor of the distinguished scholar and educationist, Hon. John Eaton, who so long and ably discharged the duties of the position, I can only hope to follow in the path which he has blazed. The records of the Office attest the efficiency and extent of his labors in the cause of education. His name will be forever associated with its history. Whatever of good it has accomplished is attributable, in great measure, to his industry, zeal, and wise superintendence, and the support of his assistants. To you the great value of his services is fully known and requires no commendation from me in this presence.

While it may be said that the life of a State and the preservation of its liberties depend upon the courage of the people, it is equally true that a wise administration of its laws and the maintenance of order and happiness rest upon the virtue and intelligence of its citizens. If this proposition is admitted, then it follows that the education of the people becomes one of the highest duties of the State, and no subject is more worthy the consideration of the enlightened statesman.

The public school system is the common fountain from which the higher branches of education draw their living waters. You are its chosen guardians, and you should see that no step backward is taken, either in perfecting its excellences or in extending its usefulness. The time, I trust, is rapidly approaching when its advantages will be offered to all the children of the land without distinction of race.

To quote from a high authority :

When the common school system shall have unfolded its vast powers; when a corps of trained and educated teachers to supply all its demands shall have taken the field; when the text-books used in the schools shall be wisely selected, and the school-house built upon the most approved model; when its protection and progress shall be the first object of the Government—then will all its mighty agencies to do good be felt; the public mind refined and enlightened; labor elevated; patriotism purified; our Republican form of government fixed on an immutable basis, and the people crowned with its benefits and blessings.

These prophetic sentences were written more than thirty years ago by that venerable and distinguished statesman, Andrew G. Curtin, then Superintendent of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania. He has lived through long and eventful years to realize the partial fulfilment of his bright dreams as to the whole country, and to see his efforts to establish the common school system of his own State upon a better basis crowned with success.

Clarum et venerabile nomen.

Since I assumed charge of the Bureau in October last, I have endeavored to become familiar with the various parts of its work and their relation to the work done by the schools and systems of the

country. The only changes made by me in the organization and methods have been dictated by a desire to make its publications more simple and effective, more prompt, and, if possible, more useful to its correspondents. This is not yet the time to say whether these efforts, or any of them, have been or will be successful, but I have reason to think that in some respects they will not be found wanting in result as well as in labor.

One of the matters that I have tried to forward is the Annual Report. To most of you the method of preparing this Report is known, but perhaps it is well to describe that method briefly. For fifteen years the Reports of the Bureau have comprised a personal statement by the Commissioner, a résumé of the educational condition of each State and Territory, and a series of statistical tables of public systems and other schools of every grade. The variety and extent of these tables, made up almost entirely from written replies to questions sent out by the Office, have resulted in delaying the preparation of the report for many months. The correspondents of the Bureau must collect this information from their own sources before they can reply.

The time spent in getting the document through the printing office, though one for which the Bureau is hardly responsible, is another cause of delay. The report of 1884-'85 was completed and placed in the hands of the Public Printer in the month of December of last year, but I am sorry to say that it is still unpublished, on account of the great pressure of Congressional work upon his office.

From these and other similar causes it results that the Annual Reports of the Bureau have seldom appeared until two years after the time they covered have expired. I have tried to increase the promptness of this valuable document by careful attention to details and by a cautious simplification of methods.

Whatever suggestions for improving the substance or the form of this document which you personally or collectively may choose to make will receive most respectful and careful consideration from me and from those associated with me in its preparation.

You can often do much to facilitate our labors by fulness, correctness, and promptness in the details of your several replies and reports to this Office.

One of the noticeable results of the efforts made by this Bureau to secure accuracy of statement in the preparation of the Annual Reports is seen in the simplification of statistics and the tendency toward uniformity of classification in the preparation of their returns by State and city educational authorities.

Whatever objections there may be to uniformity of methods in the art of teaching, in a country so diversified as ours, there can be no question that the value of statistics for comparison depends absolutely upon their essential conformity to like conditions. In the Annual Reports of this Bureau I desire to make continual progress in this direction, to make

the presentation of statistics of education as simple and concise as is compatible with requisite fulness and accuracy, and to aim, in the comments I may be called on to make, at clearness and directness of statement.

In connection with this subject, I venture to suggest that the methods found most efficient for the collection and compilation of information everywhere in the Union, and the laws found to work best, might be adopted in all other parts of the country, thus producing as much uniformity as the varying climates, occupations, and wealth of the several communities may usefully allow.

When the Report for 1885-'86 is finished, the Report of 1886-'87 will be immediately taken in hand. I hope to have them both ready within the present year. The main difficulty in accomplishing this will be in obtaining in time for the latter the necessary statistical information. To this end, a consummation so devoutly to be wished, I invoke your prompt and kind attention.

While the law establishing the Bureau makes the preparation of the Annual Report a specific duty, it also provides for other means of promoting the cause of education. Therefore I have prepared several minor publications, and reprinted some of those prepared under my predecessor. Among them are bulletins relating to the planting of trees and to other appropriate ceremonies for Arbor Day, the circulars upon the teaching of music and the libraries of the United States, and the proceedings of your last meeting. This latter circular, I am glad to state, is just from the press, and will be found upon your desks.

The Special Report on Education at the New Orleans Exposition of 1884-'85, prepared under the direction of my predecessor, has been published and distributed since my entrance upon my present duties. The International Congress of Educators, held in connection with the New Orleans Exposition, took the place of the annual meeting of this Department in this city in 1885. The proceedings of this conference form part of the varied and valuable contents of that report.

In 1884-'85, at the request of librarians, the Bureau made a systematic canvass of the whole country for the purpose of obtaining the names and statistics of all libraries, not strictly private, having three hundred or more volumes. The result of this attempt, comprehending information from five thousand three hundred and thirty-eight libraries answering to the conditions required, formed part of the Annual Report of 1884-'85, but the very great labor required to tabulate the data acquired has been performed in great part since I took charge of the Office. A special edition of this table has been struck off from the stereotype plates at the printing office, and has been distributed in advance of the appearance of the Report, as a partial acknowledgment of the assistance given in its preparation by the numerous librarians and school officers of the country.

Among the more recent publications of this Office may be mentioned the first volume of the Report upon Education in the Industrial and Fine Arts in the United States, prepared in response to a resolution of the United States Senate, by I. Edwards Clarke of this Bureau. This report has met with decided approbation in literary and art circles, and has received a large number of favorable criticisms from journals and artists in the United States and Europe. The author is now engaged in the completion of the second volume. When completed, this work will be an exhaustive treatise upon this interesting part of the new education, and will take its place among the most valuable publications made by the Government.

The circular upon the teaching of music in our schools, the preparation of which was in the charge of Dr. Charles Warren, of the Bureau, has evoked a great deal of satisfaction, and seems to have awakened anew public interest in this attractive study.

Prof. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University, is preparing for the Bureau a paper upon the Study of History in American Colleges and Universities. The first part, in the shape of a monograph upon William and Mary College, is in the hands of the printer. This contribution to so interesting and vital a subject must prove of lasting value to the history of the higher education in the United States.

Another subject now in course of preparation is the report upon the Progress of Indian Education and Civilization. The information upon this interesting question has been collected for the Bureau in compliance with a resolution of the Senate, by Miss Alice C. Fletcher, and is now being put in form by her, and will be completed before the expiration of the current year.

Its publication promises to elucidate a subject full of interest to a large class of philanthropic persons in the United States.

It is known to you that the work of education in Alaska has been placed under the superintendence of the Bureau. Many difficulties had to be confronted in the inauguration of the schools in that distant country. Most of these, however, have been overcome by the energy and zealous management of Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the General Agent of the Government. Public schools for the instruction of the children, without reference to race, have been established at all of the larger villages and settlements in Southeastern Alaska, and in other parts of that Territory.

These schools are in charge of a reliable and competent corps of teachers, and are attended by a large number of pupils, who are taught the rudiments of education in the English language.

The appropriation by Congress at its last session of \$25,000 is a worthy recognition of the claims of the children of Alaska to the aid and care of the Government in their education, and, I trust, is assurance that the system now in its infancy will be liberally fostered and encouraged.

I have thus made mention of a part of the work and intentions of the Bureau, so far as I have had connection with them, in order to show that there has been no breach in the continuity between the past and the present, and to assure you that I shall, whenever possible, endeavor to carry on the work and fulfil the designs for which the Office was established, and by which it must stand or fall in the future. I trust that you will see that I am no iconoclast, and that my only purpose is to increase the usefulness and efficiency of the Bureau and its publications to the profession which it represents in the government of the country.

If it be decided that the Bureau of Education is to be kept within its present limits of investigation, in spite of the many new subjects now occupying the attention of educationists, the present force of the Office can be made to do the work as now done; but if the Office is to comprehend the many topics in its range of inquiry and to treat them as the advance in the methods of statistical science requires and as the expectations of its intelligent friends justly hope and desire, some increase in its ability to perform the work will be necessary. If the large and valuable special collections of the educational library and of the museum are to be of that use to the educators of the country of which they are susceptible, the fostering care of Congress will be needed in moderate annual appropriations for the proper care and increase of their important instrumentalities.

If, however, these expectations are denied, as they have been, I shall most cheerfully conform to the exigencies of the hour, and endeavor with the means at hand to produce the best attainable results.

I again welcome you to this city, named after the first, the greatest, and the wisest of Americans, whose greatness is imaged in the grand marble obelisk that looms above the river and the State he loved; whose words and whose career are the best object lesson for us in training the Americans of to-day for the labors and duties of to-morrow—to this city, the Mecca of American constitutional life, which in its beauty mirrors the serene energy that is the highest result of human effort applied to the best objects; and to this meeting, which, let us hope, will be fruitful of wise counsel and wise action for the benefit of all who love or labor for the advancement of our countrymen in virtue intelligence, happiness, and education.

After a short recess, during which persons in attendance were requested to supply the secretary with their names, official positions, and addresses, the Hon. FREDERICK M. CAMPBELL, superintendent of schools in Oakland, California, was introduced as the next speaker.

PUBLIC EDUCATION ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

After a continuous residence of 29 years in California I have for the first time crossed the continent to be present at this meeting of superintendents. Such a trip is necessary if one would realize in some degree the magnitude of our country—the grandeur of its mountains—

the endless reach of its vast plateaus—the limitless variety of its resources, and the untiring energy of its people, who have reared cities all over the wide region where, fifty years ago, the Indian roved through the primeval forest. Passing from the sight of all these, to this beautiful city—the seat of the Government of this country—the centre of that power which regulates and keeps in harmonious play all the movements of the great complex unit we call our nation, I feel more than ever glad to be an American. More than ever before am I impressed with the responsibility of being a factor, however humble, in that force which has so large an influence in moulding the mind, the thought, and the character of those who are coming up to the rank of citizenship, who are to sit in these halls of legislation, to fill chairs in these departments, and upon whose patriotism, wisdom, and virtue will depend the future of this country—a future which involves the success or failure before the peoples of the whole world of this last and greatest experiment of a Government of the people, by the people, and for the people.

Living for all these years on the very western verge of the continent, away from the advantages of such gatherings as this, I have come as a learner, as one delighted to listen, to sit quiet, to catch the inspiration of the hour from my brothers here at the centre of things, and, jealous of every moment, would gladly have listened and learned during this hour, rather than have said any word of my own.

It is with feelings of mingled pride and distrust that I rise to address this representative audience—pride, not of any personal nature, but a loyal pride in the State which I represent, born of a consciousness that, in an estimate of the work accomplished by our system of public education, California can show results of a magnitude which her most enthusiastic sons 35 years ago could not have hoped for in their wildest dream of the future. With this pride is closely linked a self-distrust entirely personal—as I feel how far beyond my ability it is to do justice to my subject in the effort to recapitulate some of the difficulties which our people have encountered in performing the work accomplished; to give a brief sketch of its present aspect; and to hint at the causes which have contributed to render our efforts successful in the past, and full of hope for the future.

May I be permitted one more remark of a personal character, warranted perhaps by the fact that I stand among you a stranger, from the remotest boundary of our Union; from a State whence so many wild tales have come of unheard-of transformations—of doctors of divinity shovelling sand, and grave lawyers and learned professors filling the role of cooks and waiters. I stand before you in no recently assumed profession. Memory runs not back to the time when I was not, in some capacity, connected with school work, and the future can offer me no higher honors than those which are to be won on this field. My highest

ambition reaches out to no loftier goal than that gained by the men whose names are remembered as having exerted a beneficent power in moulding the minds and training the energies of the rising generation.

Despite the fact that our Golden State is one of the brilliant sisterhood, that we have constant daily communication with the Eastern shore of the continent, it is nevertheless true that for many years we were in a great degree an isolated State, and the most erroneous and exaggerated ideas concerning our people were widely prevalent. Roaring Camp and Poker Flat were soberly taken as the models of our social customs, and the typical Californian was the anomalous hero of these and kindred tales. I think the popular conception of the average Californian was about as near to truth as that of the traditional Yankee, who still appears sometimes upon the comic stage with striped trousers, swallow-tail coat, tall collar, a nasal twang, and a pronunciation the like of which was never heard in any civilized land beneath the sun.

It is very difficult to correct an impression when once it has become a part of the fixed belief of a people. On the contrary, having once taken root, it is likely to grow to exaggerated size, and bear fruit of wonderful quality. So it is that after these many years of constant and increasing intercourse, I believe our Eastern friends have no just conception of the intellectual and educational position of California to-day. Crowded excursion trains bear thousands of tourists to our shores; but they see only one side of our life. They tell you of the rich vineyards in our valleys and on sunny hillsides—of the groves of orange and almond and olive—of gardens of roses and heliotrope, that furnish us bouquets all the year round and lilies to dress our churches at Christmas time. They see our towering mountains and mighty waterfalls, and the city by the Golden Gate, and of these they bring back the glowing record. But it is not in any of these that the real California is found. The Alpine heights are as grand, the vintage of Spain as rich, the olive and orange bloomed long ago on other shores. It is to our homes and social institutions you must look for that which constitutes our State. Of these a transient visitor can form no just idea. The armies of tourists throng our gigantic hotels and form a community by themselves. They bring you back no report of the true life of our people. It is a life that has been moulded by exceptional circumstances. While the growth of some other sections has been equally rapid, ours has differed in some essential points, which I touch upon in this connection as having an important bearing upon our educational system.

The men who settled upon the rich lands of Kansas and Iowa and Dakota took with them their families and their household gods, and founded homes on the fertile prairies. The men who made Chicago and Milwaukee and Saint Paul great marts of traffic, went to remain. But the pioneer of California went out, like Abraham of old, not knowing whither he went. He was essentially an adventurer—his life was an experiment. Wife and sister and child, if he had them, were left

behind, till he should see whether a prize or a blank awaited him in the uncertain future. The whole atmosphere of California life has been tainted with the elements of speculation and chance.

First came the chance of finding the precious metal in the claim chosen—and to-day hundreds are still toiling on, hoping ere long to “strike pay rock.” The gigantic speculations of the mining share market, that came as the next phase of this feverish life, are too familiar to demand more than the briefest mention. And when our men began to see that mother earth paid to the tiller of the soil rewards as rich as those she bestowed on the successful miner, even here the same reckless spirit prevailed. The possessor of a thousand acres would hazard his all on a single crop, which, if abundant, would pay him enormous profits, rather than vary the products of his ranch—so that if drought or flood should come, something might be spared. Dr. Glen had one year 55,000 acres of wheat and loaded 12 ships.

The prevalence of this spirit formed one serious obstacle to the founding of educational institutions on the broad, liberal and permanent basis which alone can insure success. I hope presently to show you how we have succeeded in overcoming this difficulty, but I cannot deny that we still feel its effects, and that the traits of our early settlers have been transmitted to their sons in the form of an INTENSE PRACTICALISM, with which we have continually to contend in our efforts to attract these boys to higher and more thorough education, which they are always tempted to neglect for some money-making avocation. I do not suppose this is peculiar to California, though I can see reasons for its existing there in a somewhat exaggerated form. No doubt this is one great evil of the time in which we live. In the earlier ages, when learning was confined to the cloister and the cell, or when a little later it began to be the distinguishing mark of a select circle who formed a sort of aristocracy of intellect, it was valued for its own inherent worth. Men sought the treasures of learning for the very joy of acquiring and the triumph of possessing—not merely as a means to some more remote end. But the watchword of the nineteenth century is “Cui bono?” Men and women alike take up the cry, and the facile tongue of the child soon catches the oft repeated sound. *Why* should I study the languages? Will it help me in the race for wealth? *Why* should I become familiar with the master minds of my mother tongue, and their stores of lofty thought? Will it give me any advantage in the strife for political preferment? There is always some ulterior end, and the love of knowledge for its own sake is a rare and almost unheard-of thing. Does not this have a significant bearing on the present much disputed question of elective courses of study? This is not the time to enlarge upon this point, but I think the relation is evident.

The fact remains that our boys leave the broad fields of culture that lie so invitingly before them, to rush, immature and not half equipped, to take their part in the struggle for place and wealth and power—and,

what is more serious still—to lift up their voices in the attempt to decide the grave social issues of the day—a task requiring the maturest effort of trained and disciplined minds—minds capable of taking up these great problems, and, with the keenest inspection, unravelling the tangled web.

These boys have ever before their eyes a seeming denial of the necessity or desirability of thorough mental training, in the spectacle of men totally without such training in the possession of millions gained by some sudden turn of fortune's wheel. Who shall correct their false standards of value, and dissuade our boys from tempting the fickle goddess in the hope that they too may be equally favored?

The money question, too, has another side. In an atmosphere like that of California, fortunes are lost, oftentimes, as rapidly as won; and the lad who, perhaps, may be craving a liberal education, is forced by a rigorous necessity to begin early in life the hard struggle for daily bread.

In cases not a few, moreover, men who came to our State in early days, still looked upon the old home in the East as dearer than the new, and bestowed there the fortunes gained in California. The most recent instance which comes to my mind is that of Jonas G. Clark, who has just made an offer of so liberal an endowment for a college in Worcester, Mass. Mr. Clark was for a long series of years a successful business man in San Francisco, and, if I am rightly informed, still has large interests in California.

The same lingering love of the old home has, in many cases, led our men of culture to send back their sons to their own Alma Mater, where they might reap the benefits of an older civilization, and unfold their minds amid scenes made classic by the presence of the poets, philosophers, and scientists of two hundred years.

But if we have not found our work free from difficulties and discouragements, there have been nevertheless many causes which have aided us in achieving the very gratifying degree of success which, after 35 years, have crowned our labors. If the spirit of adventure brought the germs of civilization to our shores, it was not of that baser sort which we have come somehow to link with the name "adventurer," and I use the word in its nobler and more literal meaning. They came, more like the early colonists of their New England homes. And while, naturally, a considerable element of the opposite class was attracted by the golden stories of California, the men who really moulded the form of this infant State and shaped its future, were men of thought, of energy, of education, of moral force. Only such qualities could have brought order out of the chaos of '49 and '50, and laid deep and broad and strong the foundations of the State. In the last number of the *Overland Monthly*, a writer (John Hittell) of reminiscences of his early California life notes the fact that "while the journey could, in those early days, be made without real danger and absolute privation, yet

the difficulties were sufficient to deter the horde of beggars and vagrants from densely populated regions. As between Europe and the Atlantic ports, so between New York and San Francisco, in proportion as the difficulty and expense of transit has diminished, so the number of undesirable and worthless immigrants has increased." Thus while we have reaped large advantages from these improved facilities, it has, in a certain way, left us still pioneers in the cause of education. In these older States of yours there are a thousand allies of education. The schoolmaster is no longer *abroad* here, he is at home. He is surrounded by all manner of helpful influences. Colleges and libraries, and churches friendly to education, with wealth that knows its own best use of ministering to public intelligence, are here scattered broadcast over the land. The institutions of culture and refinement are too firmly based to be shaken by every idle wind of shifting notions. No ambitious politician here hopes to make capital by pandering to the ignorant prejudices of the mob. No jealous sectarianism ventures to put itself in the way of the march of improvement. Your people, even in the remotest rural districts, are full of the enthusiasm of ideas. The fame of your great colleges has reached every hamlet and household, and the examples of educated and eminent men are familiar to every boy and girl.

In California it is very different. These later years have brought us large numbers of immigrants from every nation; and multitudes, even of our own people, of a restless shifting disposition feel no permanent interest in the prosperity of the country, and do not even call it "home."

But when, a few weeks ago, in our State Legislature, I heard a graduate of our State University make an eloquent appeal for the generous support of his Alma Mater, I realized that a better day was close at hand, and that pioneer work would ere long give place to the labors of loyal sons and daughters, born on the soil of California, and nurtured in her own institutions. And I rejoiced in the power and the value of such labors, when, a little later, I learned that the measure so ably and zealously advocated by him and his fellow-graduates in the Legislature had passed that body, been signed by the Governor, and was a law. You will readily appreciate this when I tell you that by this act a perpetual annual tax of one cent upon each \$100 of taxable property in the State is levied for the support of the University. Upon the valuation of last year this will amount to over \$75,000.

Yet before I speak more definitely of these institutions, I must recall one or two things which seem to have aided largely in the success of our early efforts. Evidently the character of our State builders themselves was the main factor; but, among the wisest and best is diversity of opinion as to the means of attaining the same desired end. It is well that it should be so always. For inquiry, doubt, discussion—even hot debate—are the winds and tides that keep the great world-encompassing ocean of educational thought from stagnating; and *common sense*, one might add, is the good clean *salt* that keeps it all pure and

sweet. Certain debatable questions were open to our early educators. What shall we teach? How much shall we teach? How early in child-life shall we begin? How far shall our course extend? And so forth.

Of course these questions came gradually, and the result is still being evolved. But into the laying of their plans, came something of the same spirit which had brought them to this untrodden soil. The breadth of a continent lay between them and the ancient and fossilized theories of the past, and they grasped the opportunity to infuse into their work the fresh energy which they found in the very breezes that invigorated their lungs.

Then the cosmopolitan character of our pioneers contributed largely to success. From east and west—from north and south—from England and Germany and France, from Oxford and Heidelberg and Edinburgh, came men bringing the advanced thought of the age. So methods were compared with methods, results with results, until the outcome has been a growth like that of other products transplanted to our soil—almost unprecedented. First in rank, and having its birth in early days, stands the

STATE UNIVERSITY,

crowning our system of free public education.

The University of California really had its birth early in 1853, when a Congregational minister, a graduate of Yale College, opened a boys' school in a little room in Oakland. This man was Henry Durant, who at this early date had in his capacious brain the plan of a State university, and who lived to see its buildings rise on the fair slopes of Berkeley Hills, himself its first honored President.

Its beginnings read like a tale of romance. You will pardon me a brief chapter as told familiarly by Dr. Durant himself:

The house was building. It had been roofed in, the outside was nearly finished, some of the rooms quite well under way, and one room furnished inside. The contractors, as I understood, were about making arrangements with some parties to let them have the money to finish up the building—some six or seven hundred dollars—and to take a lien on the building. They proposed to get the whole property for themselves in that way. This thing had been done, I knew, with regard to a pretty good house that had been built a little while before. The builder was not able to pay for it immediately, and the contractors got somebody to advance the money to complete the house. They put into the house a man armed with a pistol to keep the proprietor away, and took possession of it themselves; and he lost the house. Knowing that fact, and not knowing but something of that kind might occur, I consulted a lawyer, who told me what I might do. Said he, "You go and take possession of that house. Be beforehand. You have had to do with the contractors; you really may be regarded as the proprietor of it." I came over at night, took a man with me, went into the house, put a table, chairs, etc., into one of the rooms upstairs, and went to bed. Pretty early in the morning the contractor came into the house and looked about. Presently he came to our door. Looking in, says he, "What is here?" I was getting up. I told him I didn't mean any hurt to him, but I was a little in a hurry to go into my new home, and I thought I would make a beginning the night before. I asked him if he would not walk in and take a seat. I claimed to be the proprietor, and in

possession. He went off. My friend went away, and in a little while the contractor came back with two burly fellows. They came into the room and helped themselves with seats. I had no means of defence except an ax that was under the bed. The contractor said to one of the men, "Well, what will you do?" Said he, "If you ask my advice, proceed summarily," and then he began to get up. I rose, too, then—about two feet taller than usual; I felt as if I was monarch of all I surveyed. I told him that if I understood him, he intended to move into the room. Said I, "You will not only commit trespass upon my property, but you will do violence to my body. I don't intend to leave this room in a sound condition. If you undertake to do that, you will commit a crime as well as a trespass!" That seemed to stagger them, and finally they left me in possession.

This was the beginning of the college school which was designed as preparatory to a university subsequently to be established. My own first connection with the educational interests of Oakland, with which I have ever since been identified, except my term as State Superintendent, was in this school, to which I went as a teacher early in 1861.

In 1855 the State gave the college a charter, and the first building of the college proper was erected on Twelfth street in Oakland. In 1859 Dr. Durant was made professor of Greek, and mental and moral philosophy. Three other gentlemen, one of whom—Rev. Martin Kellogg—is now dean of the university, were associated with him, and in 1860 the first Freshman class entered. This class graduated in 1864 four members. The following year three graduated. One of these—Hon. John Glascock—represented that same district as a member of the Forty-seventh Congress.

The constitutional convention which met in Monterey in 1849 had provided for the protection, preservation, and improvement of land which might be granted for university uses, either by the United States Government or by individual gifts, and had made it the duty of the State Legislature, as soon as possible, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of the university. The germ of this fund was a grant by Congress in 1852 of 72 sections of land "for the use of a seminary of learning." The same act also set aside 10 sections to create a Public Building Fund. In 1862 the act was passed, offering to each State a certain amount of land for a college of agriculture and mechanic arts. This was formally accepted by California in 1864, and her portion was 150,000 acres. Some ineffective and fruitless legislation was had in the interim, and in 1867 the situation was substantially this; a State university existed on paper, backed by sufficient funds, but having nothing else. The College of California had a site, buildings, a faculty and students, but no funds. Evidently consolidation was desirable to both parties, and this was satisfactorily accomplished in 1868, and the organic act of incorporation was passed by the Legislature. The buildings of the College of California in Oakland were occupied by the university until 1873. In July of that year commencement exercises were held at the new site, and the north and south halls formally dedicated. Failing health had compelled the resignation of President Durant, and in 1872 President D.

C. Gilman, now the honored president of Johns Hopkins University, had been installed as his successor. I will not tax your patience with details of early struggles, which have been many and desperate, but as the university is the crowning achievement of our system of free public education, it seems to demand the especial notice which I have given it. Tuition is absolutely free. All courses of study are open to both sexes. During the last year 122 different courses of study were offered, of which 94 were actually given. I have not been able to verify the correctness of my impression, but it is my belief that when the University of California in 1870 opened her doors to her daughters as well as to her sons, she was the first of the higher institutions of learning to recognize their equal rights and privileges, all absolutely free. The site of the university, comprising 200 acres, is unsurpassed in beauty. Five miles from the City Hall of Oakland, its buildings rise on the lower slopes of the Coast Range, here not more than 1,200 or 1,500 feet in height, facing the beautiful bay and harbor of San Francisco; and looking directly out through the Golden Gate towards the regions of the setting sun and covering all the miles that lie between, are blossoming orchards and fertile farms; and where the mainland meets the bay, the city of Oakland, covering an area of many miles, lifts her graceful spires amid the trees and gardens that surround the homes of 50,000 inhabitants.

It is a remarkable fulfilment of a remarkable prophecy found in a poem written in 1794 by Dr. Dwight of New Haven—if I am not mistaken, the grandfather of Dr. Dwight, president of Yale College:

All hail thou Western World! By heaven designed
The example bright to renovate mankind!
Soon shall thy sons across the mainland roam,
And claim, on far Pacific's shores, their home.
Proud commerce's mole the western surge shall lave;
The long white spire lie imaged on the wave;
Where marshes teemed with death, shall meads unfold;
Untrodden cliffs resign their stores of gold.
Where slept perennial night, shall science rise,
And *new born Oxfords* cheer the evening skies.

I think I know something of the estimate in which the higher institutions of learning in the new States were wont to be held by our brothers in the older States; and no doubt there was (and may be still for aught I know) much to justify the tone of voice, the expression of face, and the impression sought to be conveyed, as they were alluded to as "Western Colleges." But when you think or speak of the University of California, try to think and speak of her as she is. The limits of a paper for an occasion like this, and the ground to be covered in the subject assigned me, forbid that I should dwell much longer on this particular part of our system of public education. I invite those who are interested in this special line of work, and all who are disposed to be well informed concerning our university, to take a copy of the last Register, a number of which I have here for this special purpose.

To summarize then:

The University of California is an integral part of the public educational system of the State. As such it aims to complete the work begun in the public schools. Through aid from the State and the United States, and by private munificence, it furnishes ample facilities for instruction in science, literature, and the professions of law, medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy. In the colleges of letters, agriculture, mining, mechanics, civil engineering, and chemistry, in the literary course and in the course in letters and political science, these privileges are offered without charge for tuition to all persons that are qualified for admission. The professional colleges, being self-sustaining, require moderate tuition fees. All courses are open to all persons without distinction of sex. The constitution of the State, as will appear elsewhere in my address, provides for the perpetuation of the university, with its existing departments of instruction.

The departments of instruction comprise the following:

1. IN BERKELEY.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The College of Letters: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Classical course. (b) Literary course. (c) Course in letters and political science. 2. The College of Agriculture. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. The College of Mechanics. 4. The College of Mining. 5. The College of Civil Engineering. 6. The College of Chemistry. |
|---|---|

2. IN SAN FRANCISCO.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Hastings College of the Law. 2. The Toland College of Medicine. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. The College of Dentistry. 4. The California College of Pharmacy. |
|---|--|

It is intrusted to the care of a board of regents, which includes the Governor, the lieutenant-governor, the speaker of the assembly, the State superintendent, the president of the State Agricultural Society, the president of the Mechanics' Institute of San Francisco, the president of the university, and sixteen other regents appointed by the Governor and approved by the Senate.

To this body of regents the State has committed the administration of the university, including the finances, care of property, appointment of teachers, and determination of the interior organization in all particulars not already determined by law.

The instruction and government of the students are intrusted to the academic senate and the faculties of the various colleges. The senate consists of all persons engaged in giving instruction in any of the departments of the university by authority of the board of regents. It holds its meetings twice a year.

FUNDS.

The resources from which the university is maintained were derived from various sources, and include the following endowments:

1. Seminary fund and public building fund granted to the State by Congress.
2. The property received from the College of California, including site at Berkeley.
3. The fund derived from Congressional land grant of July 2, 1862.
4. Tide land, land fund, appropriated by the State.
5. Specific appropriations by Legislature, for building, current expenses, &c.
6. Gifts of individuals.

The general funds of the university are devoted to the College of Letters and College of Science. The Colleges of Medicine, Dentistry, and Pharmacy are self-supporting. The College of Law has a separate endowment.

The income of the university for the last year approximated \$200,000.

The corps of over 40 professors and assistants engaged regularly in the work of instruction at Berkeley includes some whose fame, in their special lines of thought and work, is not circumscribed by the boundaries of our country. The University of California, with all its splendid equipments in every other respect, is specially rich in its unusually full, strong, able, earnest teaching force. And after all that can be said of buildings, and apparatus, and libraries, and all the helps and aids that can be given the student anywhere, is he not finally fortunate or unfortunate in accordance with the kind of men he must meet as his guides and instructors? The answer to my question is expressed in the aphorism, "The teacher makes the school." A magazine article which I read recently relates of President Garfield, that some years ago he attended a meeting of the alumni of Williams College (of whom he was not the least distinguished). There was presented to this meeting of her sons the urgent need their Alma Mater had of new apparatus and other appliances of study. General—then Senator—Garfield said that he was fully conscious of the value of these things. "But," said he, "give me a log cabin in the State of Ohio, with one room in it, and a bench with President Hopkins at one end of it, and me at the other, and *that* would be a college good enough for me."

We have in the faculty of our university more than one man whose words are an inspiration, and whose very presence is a benediction to the student.

I believe, moreover, that our university reaches out and down, and comes nearer to the people, in their industrial interests, than is usual with institutions of the higher education. Bulletins are issued, from time to time, by the agricultural department, and widely and gratuitously distributed to those directly interested, giving the results of scien-

tific investigations and experiments of direct, practical value and importance to the farmer, the fruit-grower, and the vineyardist; by the department of chemistry, giving the results of analyses made by the professor of chemistry, in his capacity as State analyst, to whom, as such, may be sent mineral waters, wines, soils, or anything else, and by anybody, for official examination and analysis.

The wine interests, now assuming such vast proportions in California, are not forgotten, and the university has a large fermenting cellar and all necessary appliances for thorough, intelligent, practical work, as well as scientific investigation and experiment. Some splendid and very successful experimental work is being done there also, in the direction of determining the character and values of ores by the use of the microscope. Indeed, in the department of mineralogy and metallurgy, I have been told by those who were in position to be thoroughly informed on the subject, that very few institutions anywhere are better equipped than our university. In addition to other large collections, those of the State Geological Survey, which cost the State government hundreds of thousands of dollars, are now the property of the institution. I do not mean that it is rich simply in case specimens, but in hand specimens for manipulation by the students as well. Moreover there is a fully equipped assay office, and a department, with all the mechanical appliances of mining, such as a quartz mill, crushers, concentrators, &c., where the student can see practical work carried on in the beneficiation of ores. Without detailing the practical work done in the mechanical arts college, or the fine art gallery, the gift of Henry D. Bacon, or more than naming the library, enriched by gifts by many generous givers—indeed, in a word, without elaborating further, I repeat that the people of our State feel, that in the University of California they have, not only a place for their young men and women to go to for instruction in any branch of human knowledge, but that they themselves, from day to day, at their homes and in their business, can share in its advantages, and enjoy its blessings. Without at all yielding any of its strength or its dignity, it is made, essentially, a university *of* and *for* the people.

In the new constitution, adopted in 1879, no provision was made for high schools, each local board being left free to establish them if so disposed, and willing to raise the necessary funds by local taxation—and therefore as next in our *State* system, I mention our two

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

One of these is located at San José, 50 miles from San Francisco, in the midst of the fertile Santa Clara Valley, and the other at Los Angeles, in the southern portion of the State, and distant from San Francisco 500 miles.

The State early recognized the necessity of having trained and competent teachers in the public schools. To this end a State normal

school was organized in July, 1862. It was first located in San Francisco, but was soon removed to San José, that city giving for its site a square containing 28 acres in the center of the town. Upon this, the State erected a magnificent building costing upwards of \$300,000. This building was a few years ago destroyed by fire, but upon the same site was erected the present building, of equal capacity and convenience with the former.

The statistics of this school show a greater number of *normal* students than any in the country, except those of New York City and Philadelphia. This does not include *private* normal schools, but only those supported by the State. To the 19 teachers employed in the institution is paid an aggregate in salary of \$31,000 annually, ranging from \$4,000, the salary of the principal, to \$850, the lowest paid to any of the regular corps. In the 24 years of its work, this school has graduated 1,126 teachers. That the school is doing good work, and that its graduates are in demand, is shown by the fact that, at the present time, no graduate of the school who desires to teach is without a position.

In September, 1882, a branch school was opened, by authority of an act of the Legislature, at Los Angeles, the city giving a beautiful site of 8 acres directly in the town, commanding an extensive view of the city and surrounding country. The school has sent out 225 graduates. The corps of instructors numbers 7, and the annual pay-roll is \$11,600.

The present Legislature was considering, when I came away, the question of establishing a like institution in the northern section of the State, and I have learned, since getting East, that the bill passed.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

About the time the constitutional convention met to frame a new constitution for California, namely, in 1878, there was an unusual agitation of those vexed questions of social and political economy from which no State can be always free. One result of this strife was a clause providing that no State funds shall go to support any public school of a grade higher than a grammar school, and that all schools supported by State aid should be taught in the English language only. While this was regarded as a direct blow at the high schools, it was really so in its moral effect only, because the amount received from the State fund had never been sufficient to support more than the lower grade of schools. The action of the convention, however, was only another illustration of that delightful inconsistency which prejudiced or unreasoning men will use. These law-makers were ready to provide for a free university, while at the same time they would weaken or destroy the free bridge which would carry their children from the grammar school to the entrance of this higher education. Fortunately, this action did not represent the sentiment or wish of our people, and a system of high schools has been maintained by city taxation in our principal

cities. (In my own city of Oakland, the city tax for school purposes for the ensuing year was fixed by the city council, a few days before I left home, at 24 cents on the \$100. This on the assessment roll of \$30,000,000 will yield \$72,000.) The faculty of the university, recognizing the unity of the system, admit without examination graduates of approved high schools, on recommendation of their principals. The schools are approved by a visiting committee from the faculty, who examine the courses of study and methods of teaching from time to time. President Holden says of this in his biennial report: "If it is carried out in good feeling, and with a due sense of responsibility, the result will be to weld the whole public school system into an organic whole. We are not yet prepared to admit private schools, however excellent, to our accredited list."

A special feature in our whole system is the growing importance attached to the study of our own language. I believe that in English requirements the University of California takes the lead of American universities; and the impulse thus given is felt to the lowest grades of our primary schools. Mr. Matthew Arnold is reported recently as saying that he wished he might see in the schools and colleges of England the same kind and amount of study bestowed on English as is given to foreign tongues. We hope that in the next visit to America of this distinguished gentleman he will come to California, that we may enjoy the satisfaction of seeing and hearing, not only Mr. Matthew Arnold, the distinguished poet and essayist, but what to every true teacher would be almost as great a boon, the son of Thomas Arnold of Rugby. We will show him that we have, at least, a true conception of his ideal, and are striving for its attainment.

In the pamphlet concerning the Oakland Public Schools, which I have brought to distribute among you, I have spoken so fully of the work of the Oakland High School that I need not dwell upon this topic more at length. This school stands first in the State in the estimation of the university faculty as to the thoroughness of work done in all lines of study. I believe, however, that the other approved schools adopt substantially the same courses as those followed in Oakland.

I have incidentally alluded to our new constitution, but, to present clearly our public school system, I must speak on this point somewhat more at length.

The present constitution of California was adopted by vote of the people May 7, 1879, and went into effect on the 1st day of January, 1880.

The changes wrought by this instrument were radical in many departments of government, and this is specially true of the school department. By the old constitution and the laws passed in accordance with its provisions, the school system was essentially a *State* system. The central governing body was the State Board of Education, composed of the Governor, superintendent of public instruction, principal of the normal school, and the county superintendents of certain counties

named. This board adopted a uniform series of text-books, the use of which books, so selected, was compulsory in all the schools of the State ; it also prescribed the course of study for all the schools, and the list of books from which selections could be made for the district school libraries. They also prepared and sent out the questions to be used by the local boards in the examinations of teachers, and, upon the returns, issued State certificates of three grades, valid in all the counties of the State. They also issued life diplomas and educational diplomas.

Following is the article on education in the new constitution as adopted in May, 1879, with section 7 as amended by vote of the people later, viz, in November, 1884. This last provides for the preparation and publication by the State of a series of text-books.

ARTICLE IX.

EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the Legislature shall encourage by all suitable means the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral, and agricultural improvement.

SEC. 2. A superintendent of public instruction shall, at each gubernatorial election after the adoption of this constitution, be elected by the qualified electors of the State. He shall receive a salary equal to that of the secretary of state, and shall enter upon the duties of his office on the first Monday after the first day of January next succeeding his election.

SEC. 3. A superintendent of schools for each county shall be elected by the qualified electors thereof at each gubernatorial election: *Provided*, That the Legislature may authorize two or more counties to unite and elect one superintendent for the counties so uniting.

SEC. 4. The proceeds of all lands that have been or may be granted by the United States to this State for the support of common schools, which may be, or may have been, sold or disposed of, and the five hundred thousand acres of land granted to the new States under an act of Congress distributing the proceeds of the public lands among the several States of the Union, approved A. D. one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and all estates of deceased persons who may have died without leaving a will or heir, and also such per cent. as may be granted, or may have been granted, by Congress on the sale of lands in this State, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with all the rents of the unsold lands, and such other means as the Legislature may provide, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools throughout the State.

SEC. 5. The Legislature shall provide for a system of common schools by which a free school shall be kept up and supported in each district at least six months in every year, after the first year in which a school has been established.

SEC. 6. The public school system shall include primary and grammar schools, and such high schools, evening schools, normal schools, and technical schools, as may be established by the Legislature, or by municipal or district authority ; but the entire revenue derived from the State school fund, and the State school tax, shall be applied exclusively to the support of primary and grammar schools.

SEC. 7. The Governor, superintendent of public instruction, and the principals of the State Normal Schools, shall constitute the State Board of Education, and shall compile, or cause to be compiled, and adopt a uniform series of text-books for use in the common schools throughout the State. The State board may cause such text-

books, when adopted, to be printed and published by the superintendent of State printing, at the State printing office, and when so printed and published, to be distributed and sold at the cost price of printing, publishing, and distributing the same. The text-books so adopted shall continue in use not less than four years; and said State board shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law. The Legislature shall provide for a board of education in each county in the State. The county superintendents and the county boards of education shall have control of the examination of teachers and the granting of teachers' certificates within their respective jurisdictions. [Amendment adopted November 4, 1884.]

SEC. 8. No public money shall ever be appropriated for the support of any sectarian or denominational school, or any school not under the exclusive control of the officers of the public schools; nor shall any sectarian or denominational doctrine be taught, or instruction thereon be permitted, directly or indirectly, in any of the common schools of this State.

SEC. 9. The University of California shall constitute a public trust, and its organization and government shall be perpetually continued in the form and character prescribed by the organic act creating the same, passed March twenty-third, eighteen hundred and sixty-eight (and the several acts amendatory thereof), subject only to such legislative control as may be necessary to insure compliance with the terms of its endowments and the proper investment and security of its funds. It shall be entirely independent of all political or sectarian influence, and kept free therefrom in the appointment of its regents, and in the administration of its affairs; *provided*, that all the moneys derived from the sale of the public lands donated to this State by act of Congress, approved July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two (and the several acts amendatory thereof), shall be invested as provided by said acts of Congress, and the interest of said moneys shall be inviolably appropriated to the endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college of agriculture, where the leading objects shall be (without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics) to teach such branches of learning as are related to scientific and practical agriculture and the mechanic arts, in accordance with the requirements and conditions of said acts of Congress; and the Legislature shall provide that if, through neglect, misappropriation, or any other contingency, any portion of the funds so set apart shall be diminished or lost, the State shall replace such portion so lost or misappropriated, so that the principal thereof shall remain forever undiminished. No person shall be debarred admission to any of the collegiate departments of the university on account of sex.

By this it will be seen that the duty of examining and certificating teachers was taken from the State board, and vested in the local or county boards of education. Previous to the meeting of the constitutional convention, a very bitter contest had been waged between rival publishers for the adoption by the State board of their respective books, reaching even the Legislature and the courts, and the echoes of the conflict had hardly died away at the time of the meeting of the convention.

Suspicious, moreover, had for some time existed that the questions for teachers' examinations, sent out by the State board to the various counties of the State, would sometimes and by some means get into the hands of favored candidates before the examinations began, and these suspicions found confirmation and a crisis came, when, on the evening before one of these examinations, a San Francisco paper published all the questions for the three days' examination.

These things no doubt had their influence in causing the convention to insert in the new instrument the sections so completely changing the system from one of centralized power—an essentially State system, as has been said, to one in which the chief powers, those of adopting text-books, &c., were relegated to the local boards. The adoption of the constitution was very generally opposed by teachers and school officers on account of the educational section, but it was nevertheless adopted by a large vote.

The text-book question, transferred to the 52 county boards of education and the boards of education of the several cities of the State, still attracted attention and excited discussion. The abolition of State uniformity was not altogether popular, people often being obliged to change school-books as they moved from one county to another, and in some instances even, as they moved from town to country or vice versa in the same county—and so, as the outcome of the whole matter, section 7 of Article IX of the constitution was amended in 1884, to read as just given. The publication of text-books by the State is not general; and that it is a matter of interest, and that the experiment in California is attracting some attention among the school people of the several States, is manifest by the numerous letters of inquiry received from other States at the State office in Sacramento, and even at my own office in Oakland. And so, if a convenient time shall offer, and it is desired, I will read a few pages (which I will now for the present pass by) giving the present status of this feature, and will have here for your inspection some copies of the books thus far prepared and gradually going into use. (This was subsequently called for and is given later on.—EDITOR.)

The adoption of the new constitution, as has been stated, had been very generally opposed by teachers and school officers on account of this article on Education, completely revolutionizing, as it did, the school system of the State under which so great progress had been made in educational facilities and in educational work, and under which our schools had so prospered. It is not strange, therefore, that very grave doubts should have been entertained by many of the most earnest friends of public education as to what the outcome would be. I had the honor of being elected the first superintendent of public instruction under the new organic act, and it was my privilege to have a helping part in adjusting the school law and the machinery of the department to the new order of things; to aid in holding fast that which was good, and, in the changes necessary to be made, in securing the best possible provisions in the light of experience and the fullest information obtainable. In this connection, I quote a brief paragraph from the concluding words of my last report as State superintendent to the Governor:

During my term of office, especially the earlier months thereof, and more especially during the revision of the school law, I laid under tribute the experience and judg-

ment of teachers and school officers all over the State ; and the department has largely profited thereby. It would be an inexcusable oversight, if not downright injustice, should I fail particularly to mention in this connection the name of the veteran superintendent, teacher, and author, Hon. John Swett. By his wise counsel, I was greatly aided in meeting and solving the many difficult questions which confronted me at the very outset of my term.

I am glad to pronounce in this presence the name of the man whom the teachers of our State and coast delight to honor, as standing in the very front rank of American educators, and whom our people will always hold in grateful remembrance for the intelligence, zeal, and courage with which he labored as State superintendent in an important epoch in California's early educational history.

The Legislature of 1880 and the executive were entirely hospitable to public education ; were disposed to act in all things for the best interests of the cause ; to do all things necessary to strengthen this great and mighty arm of the State ; the arm, viz : which, reaching out to the coming generation, protects them from the brutishness or the rapacity which would withhold from them their birth-right of intelligence, guarding them against ignorance—that prolific mother of all miseries, wrongs, and disasters—as, with its other mighty arm it guards its present against crime—guards the peaceful, honest citizen, against the assassin and the thief.

With all else that was to be done in a short session of 100 days in re-arranging and re-adjusting other departments to the new conditions (the sessions of the Legislature after the first are only 60 days), the recasting of the school laws was placed in the hands of a small joint sub-committee of earnest men, in connection with the State superintendent and to this committee were immediately referred, upon their introduction in either house, all bills upon educational matters. The school law could thus be prepared as a harmonious whole, and as such was finally presented and passed. Under it the system has worked without any perceptible jar, and in several respects the schools are in a better condition to-day than they have ever been before. We feel that in California we have a school system and a code of school laws embracing many most excellent features—calculated to secure the very best results.

I have with me a few copies of a pamphlet, containing the school laws, the constitution, and the rules and regulations of the State board of education. These pamphlets, so far as they will go, are at your disposal.

Some of the features of special value and excellence are :

1. A State board of education. It is composed of the Governor, the superintendent of public instruction, and the principals of the normal schools. A small board, and with limited powers, but still, a State board.

2. A State system, to the extent that the State board makes rules and regulations (within the State laws) for the government of the schools, and district school libraries. Uniform school registers are

also prepared, by the State superintendent, distributed to the schools, and their use made compulsory.

3. The professional recognition of teachers. The State board under specified conditions issues educational diplomas, valid for six years, and life diplomas: the former upon five years, and the latter on ten years of successful experience. Upon these, local boards issue their certificates without examination. The life diplomas and State normal diplomas of other States are similarly recognized.

4. Thorough supervision. Beside the State superintendent (who, by the constitution, ranks with the secretary of State), there is, in each of the 52 counties, a county superintendent of schools. He is a constitutional officer, is elected by the people, and holds office for four years. The salary paid ranges from \$500 to \$2,400 per annum, the average being something over \$1,000. In the city and county of San Francisco it is \$4,000.

5. County boards of education, and the provision that at least *two* of the *four* appointed members shall be professional teachers holding first-grade certificates. The county superintendent is, *ex officio*, a member. As a rule, one or both of the other two appointed members are also teachers, and thus teachers are examined and certificated by their peers.

6. County teachers' institutes. In counties of twenty or more school districts, the superintendent *must* hold an institute at least once each year, continuing not less than *three* nor more than *five* days. In the smaller counties he *may*, in his discretion, hold them. Teachers are compelled to attend, and their pay continues while in attendance. One hundred dollars are appropriated annually for the expense of the institute, together with the sum derived from a fee of one dollar charged each candidate at a teachers' examination, and each applicant for a certificate upon credentials from another State.

7. District libraries. Ten per cent. of the State money received by each district must go to the library fund; provided, however, it does not exceed \$50 per annum.

8. An official journal. The State board may designate some educational monthly journal as the official organ of the department. The journal so designated must go to each district, be preserved in the library, and be paid for out of the library fund at an expense not to exceed \$1.50 per year, for each district.

9. Meetings of superintendents. The State superintendent may call a meeting of the county superintendents, biennially. The law makes it the duty of the superintendents to attend and the supervisors must allow and pay their travelling expenses.

10. Diplomas of graduation, to those completing the prescribed course of study. By this, the stimulus and inducements for boys and girls to follow to completion a prescribed course which has heretofore been confined to high schools and colleges are applied to the district schools.

Result: Boys and girls remain longer at school, as shown by the records.

11. Women made eligible for educational offices. Result: Well, we school officers have to behave ourselves. Californians are proverbially gallant, and the nomination of a woman always makes it very warm for the "other fellow"; 7 of the 52 county superintendents are women.

12. No discrimination against female teachers. This is by a special act. The statute is crisp, and to the point. It is not long. Here it is in full:

SECTION 1. Females employed as teachers in the public schools of this State shall, in all cases, receive the same compensation as is allowed to male teachers for like services, when holding the same grade certificates.

SECTION 2. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

(That's California, too.)

13. The provisions for forming new districts; especially valuable in sparsely settled localities. A new district may be formed on application of the parents of 15 census children (those between 5 and 17 years of age) living more than a mile from any school house.

14. Lapsing districts. This is a provision to prevent the abuse of the foregoing; a district lapsing, if the average daily attendance for 3 months is only 5 or less.

15. Mode of apportioning school moneys. The State superintendent apportions the State money to the counties on basis of census children. The county superintendent apportions the State and county money to the districts in his county, so that the smallest districts receive, at least, \$400 per annum, and the others \$500 for every 70 census children, and fraction not less than 20. Any balance is apportioned among the districts on the basis of the *average daily attendance*. To receive *any money at all*, however, a district must have maintained a six months' school during the previous year (except prevented by flood, &c).

It occurs to me to remark here that when, in the early days, it finally became necessary to have schools of some kind, private schools, more or less expensive, sprang up in all directions. You must remember that money was plentiful then, and easily obtained, and Californians of those days preferred to pay for everything rather than get it for nothing. To many, moreover, the idea of "public schools" was objectionable. But all this is changed, and now the public schools are the pride and the boast of our people.

Under the operation of the sections just read, and the one to follow, school districts have been formed and public school houses have sprung up on every hand. Let any one go into any of the dilapidated mining towns, or into any of the interior towns of the State and the "White School House on the Hill" is the first building to attract the eye. Whatever their surroundings, their school house is their pride.

A friend, who not long since made a hunting and fishing trip over several hundred miles of the northern coast counties, where there are merely small settlements around saw mills, in the lumber regions, remarked to me on his return, that it was a matter of surprise to him to see so many school houses. He saw them in places where there were, apparently, no residents, where only a few loggers' huts were built, and at long distances from even small villages. They were invariably respectable-looking edifices, neat and clean, and in marked contrast to many of the dwellings of the parents of the children—the settlers.

16. The provision that *all* the money received from the State fund (except the 10 per cent. for libraries) shall be applied exclusively to payment of salaries of teachers of primary and grammar schools.

17. This section from the penal code :

654. Every parent, guardian, or other person who upbraids, insults, or abuses any teacher of the public schools, in the presence or hearing of a pupil thereof, is guilty of a misdemeanor.

18. We have upon our statute books a compulsory education law; but I am sorry to say it is a "dead letter."

19. The various provisions for county and district taxation; including the power of a district to issue bonds for the purchase of school sites and the erection of school buildings, and for securing the payment of the bonds; and, generally, the very liberal provision of money for school purposes.

Concerning this last, it may be said that there are two quite distinct theories of State taxation for school purposes. One theory is, that the State tax should be small; that the different localities should tax themselves for the education of their own children, and that no locality should be taxed to educate the children of any other locality. The other theory is, that, the State being a unit, the State as a whole is interested in reducing illiteracy to a minimum in all parts of its territory—that, as all parts of the State are tributary, in the matters of business and wealth to the centers of population and trade, it is but just and proper that these centers should contribute of their abundance, towards the education of the children of the poorer and more sparsely settled sections of the State. This latter is the theory which controls in California; and thus we find that San Francisco has contributed to the State fund in taxes, very much more than she has received back.

The State apportionments are made twice each year, in February and August. Last year the State superintendent apportioned \$1,844,065.07. This, on the census roll of 259,973 census children, was a per capita of \$7.09. The amount so apportioned, was derived from the interest upon securities held in trust by the State treasurer, for the benefit of the school fund, from poll-tax, and from a direct property tax.

In addition to this, there were raised last year for school purposes, in county taxes \$996,703.22; and in city taxes \$694,001.64; and by other sources—district taxes, &c.—\$138,596.48, making a total of \$4,135,528.21 or a per capita of nearly \$16, on the census roll.

KINDERGARTEN WORK.

I began my record of the advantages offered to the youth of California with a sketch of her highest institution of learning. That record would be lacking its most attractive feature, if I should neglect a notice of what is being done by that most charming and valuable of modern methods of education—the kindergarten. From the nature of the work it must be done largely by private beneficence. The peculiar fitness required in a teacher, the necessarily small number of pupils that constitute a class and the elastic and discretionary character of much of the instruction—make it difficult to engraft it upon our public school system except in a limited degree. The city of San Francisco has two classes connected with its school department and, so far as I am informed, these are the only ones receiving public aid.

But California has cordially accepted Froebel's gift, and in all our larger cities and towns, the kindergarten is a recognized institution. *Thirty free kindergartens* exist in San Francisco and Oakland alone, and San Francisco stands the *third city in the United States* in the number of children thus instructed. Under able direction are conducted two training schools for teachers, which supply the teaching force. As nearly as I can learn, about twenty private kindergartens, moreover, exist on the coast, all taught by graduates of good training schools.

To the generous gifts of benevolent individuals, especially of Mrs. Leland Stanford and Miss Harriet Crocker, are we indebted for the means of supporting these nurseries of infant thought, Mrs. Stanford bearing the entire expense of eight schools, with an enrolment of over 600 children. Not less essential and valuable has been the aid of those large-hearted women who have given that, without which money would have been useless—the unwearying exercise of fertile brain, cultured minds and great executive ability, to secure a wise utilization of the material aid furnished.

God bless the noble women—there, and here, and wherever they may be—who thus go down into the byways and the alleys of our great cities, and lift up these poor little ones from the darkness and filth of their surroundings, into the bright sunshine of the Garden of Childhood. And great and glorious too shall be their reward, for to them the King will say—“Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these, ye have done it unto me; come thou blessed of my Father, inherit the kingdom prepared for you from the foundation of the world.”

GIFTS.

I should fail to give a just and comprehensive view of our educational facilities in California, if I omitted to mention some of the gifts of private individuals to the State. Nor can I neglect to call attention here to the fact so often stated: that, if a man would have his wishes in this regard carried out, it is the part of wisdom to place his projected enter-

prise on a safe and abiding basis during his lifetime, rather than to subject his estate to litigation, or at least to delay—by leaving it to be distributed after his death. It is a noticeable fact that those philanthropists of California who have given away the largest sums of money have turned it in the direction of education.

James Lick was one of the first of our very rich men who made large bequests in the interests of education. His gifts, aggregating originally \$1,200,000, by increase in value now amount to \$2,000,000. Seven hundred thousand dollars was his original gift for the observatory, with which the public prints have made you all familiar. Very large bequests, the exact amount of which I do not accurately recall, were also made by him to the California Academy of Sciences (of which I shall speak hereafter). You have doubtless read of the safe transit of the great lense—the largest in the world—and its arrival at Mount Hamilton, which is near San José, the seat of the State Normal School. The whole scientific world is awaiting with interest the time when the appliances for its use shall be complete and the watcher shall see —

New planets swim into his ken.

This observatory when fully equipped, is to be turned over to the State University.

In this connection, I may speak of the Chabot Observatory in Oakland. This building, erected and equipped at an expense of \$15,000 is the gift to the Oakland public school department of the public-spirited gentleman whose name it bears. The observatory stands in the center of a public square in the heart of the city, and is furnished with an equatorially mounted telescope, a transit instrument—an exact duplicate of the one at the Lick—and all the necessary accessories for original research and technical work. So far as I know, our Oakland school department is the only public school department in the world thus provided; and an English astronomer of world-wide fame, in a recent personal letter to Mr. Burckhalter, one of the gentlemen in charge, says:

The observatory under your charge affords yet another illustration of that disinterested zeal for the promulgation of scientific knowledge which characterizes the mighty American nation. There is no such thing in England as an observatory to which the public is admitted.

One evening in each week is reserved for the use of the high school student in astronomy—one evening for observatory work by the gentlemen in charge—and at all other times the public is freely admitted, the only condition being a card given by the superintendent of schools on application at his office. This is another confirmation of my belief that, in matters of public education we come nearer to the people than do most other State systems, especially in our teaching of the natural sciences. There are several reasons why great attention is given in California to natural science studies. Our peculiarly clear atmosphere and the great number of clear nights give special advantages for astro-

nomical observation. Our climate is such that in many localities we often have from two hundred and seventy-five to three hundred clear nights in the year; and the clearness and dryness of the atmosphere during the months of our long summer, make it possible to obtain the very best results. In and around Oakland there are many private observatories and telescopes in private hands, used by amateur astronomers of more or less ability. In Oakland alone there are three private observatories, two of which are equipped with transits, clocks, and other accessories, and all furnished with equatorially mounted telescopes. At San Mateo, San Francisco, San José, Alameda, Berkeley, and other towns are from one to three observatories belonging to private schools and citizens. There is at present much attention given to the study of this science and you need not be surprised if you hear in the near future that the leaders in this study have formed the "Pacific Astronomical Society." Indeed, something has already been done towards such an organization.

Thus, also, the large fruit-growing and viticultural interests of our State directs attention to the various insects and insect-pests—our mines lead us to geology and metallurgy—the wonderful variety of vegetation in different localities and altitudes, invites us to botany—and the wide ocean which washes our 800 miles of sea-coast lays the treasures of the deep at our feet—and our climate affords special advantages for the study of all these. Why, the Le Contés and others of our university professors and scientists not infrequently go off on extended camping trips of 8 and 10 weeks, with saddle and pack animals, never for a single night sleeping in a house.

Another of our rich men, with that enthusiasm for natural science which begets a desire to spread the knowledge of its wonderful revelations, has announced his purpose of a generous bequest in this direction. Adolph Sutro, esq., whose large estate lies on the western side of the peninsula on which San Francisco is built, directly on the shore of the ocean, overlooking the famous seal rocks, has devoted many years to the study of natural history—particularly of marine life. He has collected a library of 100,000 volumes, which he proposes to increase to 500,000, entirely on scientific subjects. Many of these works are very old and very rare. He offers to give six acres of his very valuable land to the university on condition that the regents will erect there a building to cost \$10,000. Mr. Sutro has as yet made no other formal offer, but has informally announced his intention of presenting to the public his library, the two large aquariums to which he is constantly adding and the botanical and other gardens connected with this large estate. President Holden thus speaks in his recent report of the offer of Mr. Sutro :

This site is an ideal one for a seaside biological laboratory, where scientific research shall be carried on, and Mr. Sutro will provide and will support the best aquariums in the world. These are now partly built. The site adjoins splendid gardens in

which facilities are offered for experiments in botany and agriculture. The library of Mr. Sutro will be, in itself, half of a university, and access to it is equally important to all the colleges of the university. The site proposed is at the terminus of two cable roads, and will be less than one hour distant from the City Hall.

Actual teaching must be done elsewhere, I presume, but there is no better station in the world for real research. I need only speak of the similar stations of Naples, and of the Johns Hopkins University, on Chesapeake Bay, to show how much may come from such an establishment.

But among the benefactions of private individuals to the cause of education in our State, is one which is unique in the history of our country—and I might almost say of the civilized world—unique whether we consider the intrinsic value of the gift or the far reaching wisdom of the donor's plans for its utilization. From the ordinary newspaper reports one gains little idea of the magnitude of Senator Leland Stanford's gift to the youth of California. Eighty-three thousand two hundred acres of land, may or may not be a valuable possession. In some portions of our 160,000 square miles of area such a property would be an incumbrance rather than a treasure. But the three great ranches embraced in this gift comprise the choicest and most highly cultivated land in the State—the largest of them being the most extensive vineyard in the world, containing nearly 3,000,000 vines and occupying more than 3,500 acres. Besides this, 1,500 acres of alfalfa, 8,000 acres of wheat, 400 acres of oats, 3,000 acres of timber land, 25 acres of orchard, 2,500 acres rented on shares, 3,000 uncultivated bottom and timber land, and 41,000 of grazing lands make up the great Vina ranch.

The Gridley ranch, assessed last year at \$1,000,000 contains about 20,000 acres of the richest wheat land in the State. But the *home* of the university is the princely domain of Palo Alto—20 miles from San Francisco, on the line of the Southern Pacific Railroad. On this estate of 7,000 acres is the residence of Senator Stanford, and it is here that he proposes to erect the buildings of the future university. In the deed of trust which gave this absolutely into the hands of 24 chosen men, provision is made for instruction in every branch of industry, art and science; and, in closing says:

The object is not alone to give the student a technical education, fitting him for a successful business life, but is also to instil into his mind an appreciation of the blessings of this Government, a reverence for its institutions, and a love for God and humanity, to the end, that he may go forth, and, by precept and example, spread the great truths, by the light of which his fellow-man may be elevated, and taught how to obtain happiness in this world and in the life eternal.

Besides the lands enumerated Senator and Mrs. Stanford have made munificent bequests by *will* to the same end, so that the total value of the endowment is estimated at not less than \$30,000,000.

Who can estimate the possibilities of such an institution, and who does not hope that the generous givers may live to see, through many long years, the fruition of the seeds of blessing they have sown in the founding of the LELAND STANFORD, JUNIOR, UNIVERSITY.

But in these modern days there are lines of education which run parallel with, if indeed not embraced within, the domain of philanthropy and charity—departments of education where it is so difficult to separate, in the popular mind, the idea of the school from the asylum—children so important in number, and yet so handicapped by misfortune, that special provision has to be made for them, both in the method of their instruction and the manner of their support. What, it may be asked, has California done for the

DEAF AND THE BLIND ?

Incidentally it may be remarked that nothing more truly indicates the character of a people, and the worth of their civilization, than the care they extend to those who are crippled in the race of life. Judged by this standard, California may take front rank with the oldest of her sister States; and her work in this direction began early.

While the people of San Francisco yet dwelt in tents, they established orphan asylums; while the Legislature was yet on wheels, provision was made for the insane; before the State had a capital she opened a school for the deaf and the blind. From those argonaut days till now, the education of these stricken of God has been the tenderest care of the Commonwealth.

Fronting the Golden Gate, standing side by side in the fairest of all that fair land, the university and the school for the deaf and the blind, rear their solid walls—the one representing the highest culture, the other the broadest humanity, and both opening wide their doors to rich and poor alike, without money and without price.

In 1875 a destructive fire swept away buildings costing over \$200,000 but our generous people, unappalled by the calamity, have since appropriated nearly \$300,000 to the reconstruction of an institution which to-day is admitted to be a model of its kind.

A distinguished principal of an Eastern school, who attended the national convention of those interested in the instruction of deaf-mutes and the blind, which convention was recently held at the California Institution, says, in an article in his home paper—"It is the most remarkable institution in the world, and a visit to it, would, in my opinion, repay a trip across the continent."

A yearly appropriation of \$45,000 is made out of the State treasury to support this most excellent school of 165 pupils, while its intellectual results may be judged from the fact that 2 per cent. of all its pupils have matriculated at the State University, and one of its graduates is now pursuing a course at the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore.

In this direction, too, is the Home and School for Feeble Minded Children. Two years ago the Legislature made an appropriation of \$45,000 for the beginning of such an institution. A tract of many acres was purchased in Santa Clara County, near San José, and, in temporary

buildings, the home and school was opened. The present Legislature, three weeks ago, made an appropriation of \$250,000 for the erection of the necessary permanent buildings.

I must not fail to mention, also, the Industrial Home for the Adult Blind. With the moderate appropriation of \$40,000 two years ago, premises were rented just outside the city limits of Oakland, the former elegant home of a deceased wealthy citizen. It is the design of this institution to provide a *home* for blind men; not an *asylum*, but a *home* and manual training *school*, in which these unfortunate people shall be taught trades adapted to their circumstances and condition, and be afforded the opportunity to be useful, self-supporting, so far as may be, and, to that extent, independent. Bills are now before the Legislature aggregating upwards of \$112,000 for the purchase of the property, and for increased facilities. Those institutions which are more distinctly charitable than educational do not of course come within the limits of the subject assigned me. In its provision for all these, however, California is second in point of liberality to no one of her sister States.

California has no State orphan asylums, but, by legislative appropriations, supplements private charity, by paying to each institution caring for them, \$100 per annum for each full orphan, \$75 for each half orphan, and for each abandoned child supported and maintained in such institution, \$75 per year, after the first year. During the last fiscal year 19 such institutions received State aid, aggregating in amount \$229,412.03. Among the specific duties of the State superintendent of public instruction, imposed by law, is—

Ninth. To visit the several orphan asylums to which State appropriations are made and examine into the course of instruction therein.

I am aware, gentlemen of the association, that I have occupied too much of your time, very much more than my just share; that I have put your good-nature and your politeness to a stranger, to a severe test. But in the attempt to meet in some fitting manner the requirements of the subject which your good president paid me the high compliment to assign to me, this paper has necessarily thus extended itself very far beyond the limits deemed proper for such an occasion. And yet in all I have said, I have not gone beyond the limits of my own State of California. Nor can I upon this occasion. California must stand for the Pacific coast, must be the type by which you shall judge of "Education on the Pacific coast." Indeed, I have left untouched much of the field of public education even in California. That field, so barren but a few short years ago, and from circumstances to some of which I alluded in the beginning of my address so unpromising, but now giving abundant hope and assurance of that high intelligence among the masses of her people, which alone can secure anywhere the safety of society, the stability of all our institutions, and the progress of all good things among us.

Private schools and seminaries we have in various parts of the State, and many of them are of a high order of excellence. Mills College, near Oakland, is the largest institution for girls. It is incorporated and its extensive, highly improved, and valuable grounds, with its spacious and costly buildings, were deeded by the founders and owners, Mr. and Mrs. C. T. Mills, to a board of trustees, to be forever an institution for the higher education of women. Denominational schools and colleges are numerously established, and are aiding in the work of education. Some of these schools are large and powerful, and in many, instruction is free.

In closing, permit me to refer, very briefly, to a few of the most important factors in the work of public education in California, outside of her universities, colleges, and schools. By State enactment, provision is made for free libraries and reading-rooms, with which most of the cities and towns are provided. They are founded and maintained by general direct taxation. In Oakland, we have a fine free library, and maintain in widely separated portions of our city, four free reading-rooms, supplied with all the leading magazines and current literature of the day. The rate of taxation just fixed for the ensuing year in Oakland for this purpose, is 4 cents on the \$100, which will yield about \$12,000.

The State has also a mining bureau located in San Francisco, under charge of the State mineralogist. Here is another immense collection of ores and minerals from all over the coast. They are all grouped and identified, and are open to the public for examination and comparison. It is the duty of the State official in charge to publish reports, and to give all possible information to inquiries concerning the mining interests.

The California Academy of Sciences is an old established institution and has a large and rare collection of natural history specimens. The academy has been endowed with over half a million dollars by James Lick, in addition to its other property, and is one of the richest institutions of its kind in the United States. It possesses a very large collection of ores and minerals. To the student of botany it is especially useful. The herbarium contains a very large and complete collection of plants from the whole coast. These are all identified, grouped and labelled, so that any one can use them for purposes of comparison and investigation. There is also a very extensive collection of birds, and a complete one of California fishes. The ethnological collection is very full, and relates specially to the Pacific coast natives, those of Alaska, and those of the islands of the South Seas.

In the Golden Gate Park, plants of all descriptions are grown, and many rare and beautiful ones can there be seen by all the people.

Among other vigorous active societies for the collection and dissemination of useful knowledge—which I can now only name, are the California Historical Society, dealing with matters relating to the Pacific

coast mainly ; the Microscopical Society, with its fine library and microscopic slides ; the Geographical Society, devoted to records of geographical research ; the Technical Society of the Pacific Coast, devoted to the discussion of engineering topics. All of these hold meetings, to which the public is invited and freely admitted, and all have special libraries and collections. Besides the very extensive Free Library of San Francisco, the Mechanics' Institute, the Mercantile, and the Odd Fellows, are the representative libraries ; there is also a French library of 20,000 or 30,000 volumes of the choicest and rarest French books, and there are many others of a semi-public character in addition to the hundreds of fine private ones. The best known of these last is the Bancroft Library containing everything possible relating to the Pacific coast.

Although not directly connected with our system of public education, the work of the historian Hubert Howe Bancroft demands at least a passing notice. It certainly shows an achievement unique in the record of states and nations, when a citizen of this new State collects a library of 250,000 volumes relating exclusively to its history and that of the Pacific coast. Many of these are manuscripts taken from the dictation or written by the pen of actual participants in the scenes described ; and the archives of Spain and Mexico have been thoroughly searched for all the wealth of material there found to throw light on the history of the earliest Spanish settlements in America. With this library as a basis, thoroughly indexed, with a large corps of competent assistants, in a large brick building specially erected for the purpose, Mr. Bancroft has for years been engaged in putting in permanent form the riches of this vast collection, in the shape of a history of the Pacific countries, States and Territories, from Alaska to the Isthmus of Darien, to comprise, when completed, 39 large octavo volumes. Such a work has never been done for any other country. Said Wendell Phillips, concerning it : "What a Godsend such a devotee would have been for the Atlantic coast, a hundred years ago."

And now, gentlemen, if what I have said of my adopted State seems to savor too much of boastfulness ; if, in my attempt to give you a picture of my home, I have laid on the colors in hues that seem too bright, let me urge you to come and see for yourselves whether I am not a true chronicler. On behalf of the citizens of the State, I invite you to hold your next meeting in California ; on behalf of the citizens of Oakland, I invite you to hold it there. The Knights Templars and the Grand Army of the Republic will bear witness how we receive our guests.

It is recorded of the grand old hero of Appomattox, by one who knew him best, that upon only two occasions was he ever known to be moved to tears. One of these occasions was when he learned of the sudden and terrible death of a dear friend, by a frightful railroad accident. The other, was that of the beautiful and touching reception given him by the school children of Oakland, on his return to his own country from that journey round the world, in which the nations of the earth had vied

with each other in showing him royal honors. Gentlemen, the school children of Oakland—the healthiest, handsomest, happiest, brightest, and best children on earth, the bravest youths and fairest maidens, shall greet you with flowers and song, and bid you welcome. Come, and as you traverse the continent, gain, as I have done, a new sense of what it is to be an American citizen. Come! and see our lofty mountains, our fertile valleys, our smiling vineyards, our blossoming orchards. If our ocean breezes blow too freshly, visit our sunny inland valleys; and if the heat there is too intense, a half day's ride will take you to the resinous odors of the pine belt of the Sierras.

You shall see on your way, the miner washing down the golden sands of our hills—miles of waving grain—miles of ripening fruit—and, while you marvel at our resources, you shall rejoice in the goodly heritage that is not *ours* alone, but is yours also. But more than this, we shall welcome you to our homes and hearts; and when you turn your faces again to the rising sun, you will be ready to say that the poet's dream has been fulfilled—and that he was a true seer, though uttering an unconscious prophecy, who sang:

A brighter Hellas rears its mountains
From waves serener far;
A new Peneus rolls his fountains
Against the morning star.

* * *

Another Athens shall arise
And, to remotest time
Bequeath, like sunset to the skies,
The splendor of its prime:
And leave, if nought so bright can live,
All earth can take or Heaven can give.

Upon the conclusion of Mr. Campbell's paper, at 12.30 o'clock, the convention adjourned until 1.30 p. m.

SECOND SESSION.

The convention re-assembled at 1.30 o'clock p. m., Tuesday, March 15.

The PRESIDENT: Arrangements have been made for the Department to pay its respects to the President of the United States to-morrow at 1.30 p. m.

The exercises to-morrow will commence at 9 a. m. instead of 10, and there will be but one session. We will finish business for to-morrow in the forenoon, and give the afternoon to pleasure.

I have received several letters of regret, one from the Hon. Henry Sabin, of Iowa; also one from Mr. W. C. Russell, in which he expresses his sincere interest in the Department and in this meeting; also one from the Hon. G. J. Orr, State superintendent of Georgia, who expresses himself in like manner. He is much interested in the meeting, and would have been present if possible.

Major McKinley, who is on our programme, was called away by important business and hence will not address us. Mr. S. D. Waterman, of California, also sends his regrets.

I have also received a letter from Hon. James McAllister, of Philadelphia, whose absence, I know, will be a disappointment to the Department. I will read a part of it. He says :

I regret exceedingly that I shall not be able to keep my engagement on next Wednesday evening. I have been quite unwell for two weeks past and to-day I have gone to bed. It is a great disappointment not to be with you. I have been looking forward to the meeting with eagerness, and especially to the discussion which I expected to open. It seems to me the time has come when a positive position should be taken on the question of industrial education, and I was anxious to contribute in the cause of the work which has been so successfully begun by the public schools of this city, and but for the orders of the doctor I would have attempted to speak on Wednesday night, but you have such an array of able speakers that you will be able to get along without me. I trust the meeting will be successful.

I will say that the evening is fully provided for. Col. F. W. Parker will be here, and Hon. W. B. Powell is prepared to address us. Hon. H. W. Compton, superintendent of schools of Toledo, Ohio, is also present and prepared to address us, and Major Bingham, of the Bingham School, of North Carolina, will have something to say. There are several others who are expected to take part in the discussion of this interesting subject. In place of Representative McKinley, Senator Blair will occupy at least 30 minutes on Thursday evening, and Dr. Sheldon Jackson will occupy about the same time in the discussion of the subject of the relation of our public schools to the General Government.

The first thing on the programme will be an address by Dr. ANDREW J. RICKOFF, of Yonkers, N. Y., on the subject of "A Teacher's Certificate—County, City, State, and National." I have the honor of introducing Dr. Rickoff.

THE EXAMINATION AND CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

The problems met with in the development of the American public school system grow in complexity as they successively present themselves. In its relation to the Government on the one side and to the people on the other, we can borrow from foreign nations no models that are suited to our case. We must work out our own modes of administration. In such a task our first attempts will be crude; more crude, perhaps, when put into comparison with what will be than was Fulton's first steamboat compared with the palaces driven to and fro by the power of steam under the shadow of the palisades that witnessed his first experiments. But, by a faithful application of the means already placed within our control under the school laws of the several States, by convincing the leaders of thought and action in State Legislatures of advantages to be obtained by slight improvements in the statutes already existing, and by seeking more radical changes when opportunity

offers and public opinion can be brought to their support, we shall succeed in elaborating a system suited to the nature of our political institutions and thoroughly effective in every part.

But let it be understood that improvement comes only from the application of correction to error and by a cautious employment of means to supply defects whenever they become apparent.

In relation to our common school systems there is no more vital question than this: What shall be the moral quality and scholarship of the teacher? Compared with this models of school buildings, plans of organization, and even methods of teaching are quite insignificant. Hence, almost from the very beginning of the State school systems it has been required that no person shall be employed as a teacher or paid for services as such unless he holds a certificate of scholarship and good moral character from some legally qualified examiner or board of examiners.

In the several States these examiners are variously appointed or elected. In a majority of cases their terms of office are limited to two years. In many States there are scarcely any guarantees of the competency of the examiners, and in some the presumptive evidence is that they are not competent to effect the good results that are possible even under the laws as they now exist.

So far as I can ascertain there are only two States that have taken the precaution to secure teachers in the examining boards. In Alabama the State superintendent of schools appoints the county superintendent and he in turn is required by law to appoint two teachers to assist him in the work of examining the teachers of the county. In California the county board of education (the examining board) is composed of the county superintendent (elected by the people) and from three to five teachers, holding first-grade certificates, appointed by him. The merits of this system, thus illustrated in these two States, are well worth the consideration of all who may hereafter be called to legislate on this subject. Certainly the requirement that the county commissioner or superintendent of schools shall be assisted and advised by professional teachers in the examination of teachers is an excellent one and may easily be grafted upon the plans now existing in most of the States.

There is one other condition essential to an adequate examination of teachers; it is that one or more members of every examining board, being themselves experts in the business of teaching, shall act as visitors of the schools taught by those who hold their certificates, for surely no examination is complete that does not take cognizance of ability to govern, tact in management, and aptitude to instruct. The practical adoption of this principle might require that the county superintendent himself should be a competent teacher. This may be difficult to secure, but it is surely as essential to an effective administration of county school affairs as it is to the good management of city schools. How it shall be brought about is one of the problems that practical school men

have yet to solve. But it will come sooner or later. In the mean time much can be gained by the adoption of that feature of the school laws of Alabama and California, whereby it is required that qualified teachers shall be associated with the county superintendent in the examination of candidates for teachers' certificates.

Formally, and in a legal point of view, the end to be gained by the examination of teachers is to prevent immoral or otherwise incompetent men or women from becoming teachers. If this were the only service that could be rendered by them, their qualifications, and hence the mode of their election or appointment and their terms of office would be a matter of great moment. But when we come to consider the influence that a thoroughly qualified, judicious, earnest, man or woman, holding the office of examiner for a term of years, must exercise upon the teachers of a county, the sense of his or her possible usefulness grows upon us beyond estimate. At least four-fifths of the teachers in the rural district schools, in most if not all the States, are mere apprentices in the business of teaching. I suppose in fact that it is within the observation and experience of almost all who are here, that in some districts it is quite impossible to obtain a sufficient supply of even fairly qualified apprentices to take charge of the schools. To such as these the examination should be a guide and spur as well as a test of present scholarship. If properly conducted, it would show candidates their own defects and clearly indicate the appropriate remedy. The errors and defects to be found in the manuscripts and oral responses of each candidate should suggest the line of examination at his next appearance.

In the hands of a man entirely competent, such an influence would be possible that, in five years, the standard of teaching in a county might be thereby raised many hundred per cent. Such an examiner would find no obstruction in the law of any State, for the mode and extent of an examination lies wholly within the discretion of the examiner, provided only that he examines upon the branches required by the law of the State.

Under such conditions as I have set forth, I would have the certificate of the appointee limited to the shortest period for which it is now issued in any State. It ought not to extend beyond one year at most. The reissue of a certificate should be conditioned upon improvement.

If the supply of competent teachers is insufficient to supply the needs of a county, let certificates of lower standards be reissued, if the examination shows decided improvement, rather than those of somewhat higher grade if improvement is not manifest. For obvious reasons the certificate of an apprentice should not be made valid beyond the jurisdiction of the original examiners. Any party holding an apprentice's certificate (a first certificate good for only one or two years), and removing from one county to another, should be subject to examination as for the first time.

It is clearly the interest of the State to provide specially for the inspection of all schools taught by those who hold certificates of less than one year's standing, and wherever the mode of election of county superintendents does not guarantee the election of competent men, or when the superintendent's field of observation is too large to permit a careful inspection of schools within his jurisdiction, inspectors should be provided for by law to be appointed either by the county or the State superintendent. Wherever thorough inspection is possible, the indorsement of the inspector should be made essential to the renewal of a certificate.

It hardly needs to be said that no improvement of methods of examination can be expected under the prevailing mode of selecting county school officers. Sometimes the best man may, by chance, be elected, but generally it is not so.

In cities where the superintendent is appointed by the board of education, and is a member of the examining board, or is himself sole examiner, the method of certification that I have spoken of is entirely practicable, and if indorsement of success were required for the validity of a certificate beyond a term of three or six months the difficulty that sometimes occurs in the removal of incompetent teachers might be greatly reduced. Such a requirement would work no injustice, for surely a teacher's usefulness lies as much in tact to govern in moral influence, in power to interest and inspire a love of learning as in mere literary or scientific acquirements, however great these may be. But when a teacher, by industry, ability, and success, has won the approval of his employers he should be considered an employé for life and be exempt thereafter from the annoyance of periodical examinations. For boards of education to require a teacher to appear before an examining board to be examined in branches in which he had been previously examined and which he had also taught for years, and that, too, under their own jurisdiction, merely in the hope that, by reason of possible failure in the examination, they may themselves escape the responsibility of telling him that his work is unsatisfactory, betrays a species of cowardice that admits no excuse.

What has been said of the examination and certification of an apprentice will not apply to the case of one who, having an education more or less extensive, but thorough as far as it goes, has passed five years or more in the work of teaching. Such a one, having a good moral character, and having achieved a good reputation as a teacher, deserves to be set free from the limitations to which he was subjected as an apprentice. At the expiration of the years assigned to apprenticeship the candidate should be permitted to appear before a higher board, district or State; and on passing the required examination he should be certified for life, his certificate to be valid in any county of the State. A certificate thus issued by a State examining board should, on presentation, be accepted and indorsed by the State board of any other State.

This could be done through the reciprocal committee's courtesy of State boards, or the same end could be effected in any State by legal provisions to the effect that the State certificate of any other State should be accepted as a certificate from its own State board. The former method, though the less convenient, would probably afford better protection against forgery and other modes of deception. To effect such reciprocity between the States as has been suggested it might be necessary, or at least advisable, that any certificate issued by any State board should specify on its face the conditions upon which its issue was based; otherwise an equalization of conditions would seem to be essential. But this would be impossible.

Such interstate arrangements could be easily effected by conference between the several State boards. For the teacher proposing to remove from one State to another, it would secure all the advantages of the position he had honestly earned in his own. It would be worth severe and protracted labor on the part of any teacher to obtain a certificate which would admit him to teach in the schools of any State. Bearing such a certificate, he would not feel that it becomes waste paper when he passes beyond the jurisdiction of the State under whose authority it was issued, but he would be inspired with the thought that, go where he will, his certificate will be honored and respected for all it claims in his behalf.

The advantages of such an arrangement would accrue not alone to teachers. By facilitating the removal of teachers from one State to another it would promote the improvement of the schools. A free interchange of teachers between the schools of the East and the West and between the schools of the North and the South would promote the cause of education in all sections alike. But experience proves that the custom of making the local examinations and certifications essential conditions of employment, in a city, town, or county, is a serious bar to a free selection of the best teachers. I have found it so in many cases, some of which I am tempted to relate. Doubtless many other superintendents have had a like experience with myself.

On one occasion we happened to need several teachers in one of our Cleveland schools, and not being compelled to employ home talent, I authorized the principal of the school to employ graduates of a distinguished normal school of Massachusetts, the recommendation of the principal of which was of far greater worth than any certificate issued by any board of examiners could have been. They came on the first day, say, of September and taught, I think, till the winter vacation, their examination being deferred, in the meanwhile, contrary to law, but with the connivance of the board of education. They all proved themselves to be among the best teachers whose work I have ever had an opportunity to inspect; but when the examination appeared to be inevitable they gave me notice that they would not return after the vacation. They thought that the diplomas of the normal school should be suffi-

cient. They resented as an indignity the proposal to re-examine them, but they were finally induced to try the examination. They passed it with credit, and they remained. Some of them still remain there, though the incident I have spoken of occurred nearly twenty years ago. But inasmuch as they held good positions at home, they would not have listened to the proposal to come to Cleveland if they had been satisfied of the impending examination before they left there. The principal who engaged them had neglected that little formality, and thus we had the advantage of them. I could instance many refusals of engagement both at Cincinnati and Cleveland on account of these examinations. It may be that if guarantees of the good sense and good faith of boards of examiners could have been given competent candidates would not shrink from them as they do.

It is useless to seek for an explanation of this dread of examination by competent teachers, especially on the part of women; but the fact that they do hesitate is reason sufficient for breaking down this pernicious and senseless barrier between teaching in one State and another. A diploma issued by a State normal school of good standing in one State should be held to be sufficient to justify the employment of its holder wherever it may be presented, provided, of course, that it is approved by the examining board of the State in which it is proposed to be used.

If it seems desirable to this Department the necessary co-operation and correspondence regarding these matters may be initiated by a conference of the State representatives here present. They could determine whether such mutual reciprocity in the indorsement and acceptance of State certificates is practical and desirable; they could decide whether the basis of the reciprocity should be an equalization of conditions on which State certificates shall be issued in the several States entering into the arrangement, or whether, the conditions remaining unequal as they now are, the certificates of one State should be received in another at their "face value"—that is, for branches of study therein specified. It may appear on inquiry that either of these plans would involve no little difficulty and possibly that neither would be practicable. I suggest them, however, because one or the other would be an essential condition of the acceptance in one State of the results of an examination held in another.

But this leads me to a question that has been frequently raised, whether a national certificate, valid in all States alike, is not a practicable thing.

Various schemes have been proposed whereby it has been hoped that this end might be reached; but without entering into the discussion of any of them, a sufficient answer to the main question—that is, of practicability—is to say that the common school is a State institution, created by and under the exclusive control of the State; that the school trustee is an officer of the State, who is authorized to contract with teachers only under certain conditions, one of which, in every State, is that the

party with whom he proposes to contract shall hold a certificate of certain qualifications specified by law, which certificate shall have been issued by an examiner, or board of examiners, provided for by the law. If a contract is made with, and services rendered by, one who does not hold such certificate the treasurer is forbidden to pay him for his services. All this the State is competent to do, and there is no authority in any State to interfere with the exercise of this right by another. Nor can the General Government interfere with it in any way. In this respect the teacher teaching without license in the common schools of a State is in a more unfortunate position than that of the physician who assumes to practise in a State without license from the examining board in that State; for the unlicensed physician may, at least in some of the States, collect his fees if his patient is honorable enough to pay without process of law, but the patron of the uncertificated public school teacher dare not pay him for fear of the penalty attached to a misappropriation of public funds.

But is there no means by which a contract made by a superintendent or other school officer acting under authority of the board of education in one city, county or State with a teacher in another may be enforced without the consent and approval of a fourth party, styled an examiner or board of examiners? It seems to me there is none except such as may be found in the mutual courtesy of examining boards. Another remedy might be found in such change of the statutes of a State as to admit certificates from other States as of equal validity with its own certificates of corresponding grade. But I have already spoken of the practicability of such legislation and of the safeguards essential to protection from fraud by forgery or false personations.

So far I have not presumed to speak of the truly professional certificate or diploma. The requisition that a teacher of a common school shall have a certificate of qualification from some legally constituted board is designed to secure the essential qualifications on the part of teachers. It is a civil-service examination to all intents and purposes, and has no use or significance except as such. It cannot be regarded as the examination for a degree or the diploma of a profession. If we look to the State or to State officials for the certificates of individuals as duly qualified members of the teaching profession, the conditions of such membership must be fixed by State laws, and the consequence would be that there would be as many professional standards as there are States, and in each it would vary with the varying pleasure of the Legislature. A profession cannot be created by law, but a body of professional men may be incorporated under the law. This suggests one means of giving form, coherence, and legal status to the profession of teaching in any State. A State association, having acquired such influence as to make itself respected, might appoint a limited number of its representative men, from private schools and colleges, as corporate members with instruction to obtain for themselves corporate authority

to examine and issue diplomas to teachers, who would thereby become members of the corporation. This would be a nucleus to the teaching profession of a State. If the corporate members thus appointed were men of good standing, distinguished for learning at once sound and specially suited to their profession—if they were easily peers to any other teachers or professors of the State, the incorporated profession would soon become a power for great good; but if the corporate members were lacking in the qualifications I have pointed out the movement would justly incur ridicule.

The State might or might not accept these diplomas as State certificates; but this is a matter of minor importance. It would come in time. Professional certificates being thus provided for without regard to service in the public schools, they would be sought for by private teachers as an evidence of fitness for private patronage. Thus in time there would spring up a distinction between professional and non-professional teachers. The result would be a growing demand for the professional teacher, and thus the qualifications of all teachers would be generally improved. Finally that sort of discredit which attaches to quacks in medicine would be thrown upon the non-professional and incompetent. It might then not be impossible to protect parents and children from various forms of imposition to which the ignorant are always exposed. The influence of the profession having its representatives, not in public schools only but also in private schools, academies, colleges, and universities, would in every respect be wholesome. It would attract the ambition of young men towards the business of teaching if they could feel that they were entering a profession that affords honors as high, if not emoluments as great, as any other.

That the members of this Department may have the conditions of this problem set fairly before them I submit admirably condensed statements, for which I am indebted to the Bureau of Education:

A. Of the town or county authority by which certificates are issued in the several States.

B. The conditions under which and by whom State certificates may be granted in several of the States.

C. The titles, terms of service, and mode of appointment of county school officers.

A.—TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES GRANTED BY TOWN OR COUNTY AUTHORITY.

Alabama.—By county board of examiners, composed of county superintendent and two teachers appointed by him.

Arkansas.—By county examiner, appointed by county court.

California.—By county or city board of examination.

Colorado.—By county superintendent.

Connecticut.—By school visitors. [Town supervision.]

Delaware.—None. [All certificates are granted by State superintendent.]

Florida.—By county board of public instruction.

Georgia.—By county board of education; examination by county school commissioner.

Illinois.—By county superintendent.

Indiana.—By county superintendent.

Iowa.—By county superintendent.

Kansas.—By county board of examiners, composed of county superintendent and two competent persons.

Kentucky.—By county board of examiners, composed of county superintendent and two competent persons.

Louisiana.—By special committee, appointed by the (county) parish board.

Maine.—By superintending school committee (or supervisor of schools) [of towns].

Maryland.—By county examiner.

Massachusetts.—By town school committee.

Michigan.—By county board of school examiners.

Minnesota.—By county superintendent.

Mississippi.—By county superintendent.

Missouri.—By county commissioner of public schools.

Nebraska.—By county superintendent.

Nevada.—By county board of examination, composed of county superintendent and two persons appointed by him.

New Hampshire.—By (town) school committee [school board].

New Jersey.—By county superintendent of public instruction, with not more than three teachers appointed by him [county board of examination].

New York.—By school commissioners (of county).

North Carolina.—By county superintendent.

Ohio.—By county board of examiners.

Oregon.—By county superintendent.

Pennsylvania.—By county superintendent.

Rhode Island.—By town school committee.

South Carolina.—By county board of examiners, composed of the county school commissioner and two other persons appointed by State board of examiners for two years.

Tennessee.—By county superintendent.

Texas.—By county board of examiners, composed of three teachers appointed by county judge.

Vermont.—(1) By county board of examiners (composed of one town superintendent and two teachers), chosen annually by the town superintendents. (2) By town superintendents.

Virginia.—By county superintendent.

West Virginia.—By county board of examiners, consisting of the county superintendent and two teachers nominated by him, and appointed by the presidents of the district boards of education.

Wisconsin.—By county superintendent.

B.—STATES THAT GRANT STATE CERTIFICATES TO TEACHERS, 1885-'86.

Alabama.—To graduates of the Florence, Marion, Jacksonville, and Livingston State Normal Schools. (Alabama School Laws of 1885, pp. 64, 65, 72, 75.)

Arkansas.—The State superintendent may grant State certificates for life. (State School Law, 1885, p. 16.)

California.—To graduates of the State normal schools and post-graduates; to the former first-grade State certificates, to the latter educational diplomas. (State School Law of 1885, p. 57.)

Colorado.—By the State board of education, to teachers of unexceptionable character and professional ability, established by not less than two years' successful teaching in the State, and even to such only upon public examination. (School Law of Colorado, 1883, pp. 9, 10.)

Connecticut.—By the State board of education, upon such terms and in such branches as it may prescribe. (State School Laws, 1886, pp. 4, 5.)

Delaware.—By the State superintendent of free schools, one-year, two-year, and three-year certificates, after personal examination of all candidates. (School Laws of 1881, pp. 3, 6.)

Florida.—By the State superintendent of public instruction to graduates of the department of teaching. (State School Law, 1885, p. 13.)

Georgia.—Graduates of the North Georgia Agricultural College may be licensed to teach in the State schools without further examination. (Catalogue of the University of Georgia, 1885, pp. 61, 62, and p. 70 of School Laws of Georgia, 1886.)

Illinois.—The State superintendent of public instruction is authorized to grant certificates to such teachers as may be found worthy to receive them. (School Law, 1885, p. 37.)

Indiana.—The State board of education may grant State certificates to teachers of good moral character, and of forty-eight months' successful experience, on satisfactory examination. (Law, 1883, p. 32.)

Iowa.—The State board of examiners grants State certificates for five years or State diplomas for life after a full examination of candidates. (School Laws of 1884, pp. 82, 83.)

Kansas.—Substantially the same as in Iowa, except that the State certificates given are for three or five years. (School Laws of 1885, pp. 38, 39.)

Kentucky.—A State board of examiners grants State certificates to teachers of proven qualifications as to character, acquaintance with the common school course, with physiology and hygiene, and ability to teach and govern. These are for five years, and for five more on proof of continuance in teaching. (Common School Laws, 1884, p. 38.)

Louisiana.—No State certificates; but a diploma of graduation from the State Normal School appears to have the force of such. (Circular of 1885-'86, p. 15.)

Maine.—No general provision, but the normal schools at Farmington and in the Madawaska territory seem to indicate the giving of diplomas good in the State or territory.

Maryland.—The Maryland State board of education may grant to teachers of long experience and established reputation professional certificates, valid until revoked for cause. Such must hold first-grade certificates or diplomas of a college or State normal school. (School Law of 1877, p. 6; By-Laws 1877, pp. 13, 14.)

Massachusetts.—Graduation at the normal schools of the State seems to have substantially the force of a State certificate, nine-tenths of the graduates finding work. (Normal school catalogues.)

Michigan.—The Michigan State board of education grants to graduates of the State Normal School diplomas that secure from the board of instruction State certificates. (General School Laws, 1885, pp. 50, 51.)

Minnesota.—The Minnesota State normal school board confers on graduates of its normal schools diplomas that appear to have the force of State certificates. (Laws of Minnesota, 1881, p. 43.)

Mississippi.—First-grade teachers who make an average of 95 per cent. in their examinations receive from the State board of education State licenses not to exceed five years. (Laws of 1882, p. 16.)

Missouri.—Graduations from the normal department of the State University secure from the State superintendent of public schools State certificates, good for three years in the lower course and during good behavior in the higher. (Catalogue of university, 1883-'84, p. 83.)

A catalogue of Missouri State Normal School, Kirksville, 1883-'84, shows two-year and three-year State certificates given to students that complete the first two or first three years, diplomas and teacher's State certificates to such as complete the four-year course, and post-graduate diplomas of masters of arts and didactics to such as teach successfully at least two years in the State and give evidence of advancement

in scholarship and culture. (Catalogue of 1883-'84, p. 20.) Each board of regents may do the same. (Law, 1885.)

Nebraska.—Graduation from the State Normal School here leads to two-year, three-year, or life certificates or diplomas. (School Laws of 1885, section 10 of subdivision XIII, pp. 62, 63.)

Nevada.—The State board of education grants State certificates good for three years, educational diplomas good for six years, and life diplomas, all revocable for cause. (School Laws, 1885, article I, and State Normal School Catalogue, p. 25.)

New Hampshire.—Certificates of graduation from the State Normal School seem to have the force of State certificates. (Laws of 1886, p. 97.)

New Jersey.—Grants them to graduates of the State Normal School that show aptness in teaching and governing, also to holders of first-grade county certificates and all State certificates. (Catalogue of 1885, p. 66.)

New York.—To graduates of the State normal schools and to teachers certified by the State superintendent. (Code of 1879, still in force, p. 5.)

Ohio.—Life certificates and ten-year certificates granted by the State board of examiners. (Law, 1883, p. 136.)

Oregon.—State diplomas to graduates of the State normal schools, made life diplomas after six years of successful teaching. (Law, 1882, p. 49.)

Pennsylvania.—To graduates of the State normal schools after two annual terms of actual teaching, and to other teachers after three years of such teaching in a common school or schools, with proof of good character and discharge of duty, from school directors and county superintendents or superintendent. (Laws, 1885, pp. 156, 157.)

Rhode Island.—To graduates of the State Normal School. (School Manual, 1882, p. 46.)

South Carolina.—To teachers certified by the State board of examiners two-year State certificates; to qualified students of the State normal institutes, three-year or permanent ones. (Laws, 1884, pp. 8, 9.)

Tennessee.—To graduates of the State Normal College are given State diplomas. (Catalogue, 1884-'85, p. 10.)

Texas.—To graduates of the State Normal Schools, State diplomas; to others, State certificates, good for two or three years or during good behavior. (Texas Free School Statutes, 1884, p. 14.)

Vermont.—To graduates of the State normal schools or lower-course training schools; the former for 10 years, the latter for 5 years.

West Virginia.—No State certificates issued even to graduates of the State Normal School.

County certificates the rule, and these not without careful examination in each branch of study and in the art of teaching.

Diplomas from the State normal schools, from the State University, and from other universities or colleges in the State may have the force of State certificates after 16 months of successful teaching, with approval of the State board of examiners and the countersign of the State superintendent. (School Laws, 1885, pp. 80-85.)

C.—COUNTY SCHOOL OFFICERS.

[(1) Title; (2) how selected; (3) term of service; (4) county board, if any.]

Alabama.—(1) County superintendent of education; (2) appointed by State superintendent; (3) two years.

Arkansas.—(1) No county superintendent; his duties are performed by the county examiner; (2) appointed by county court; (3) two years.

California.—(1) County superintendent of schools; (2) elected by the people; (3) four years.

Colorado.—(1) County superintendent of public schools; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

Connecticut.—(1) No county supervision.

Delaware.—(1) No county superintendent.

Florida.—(1) County superintendent of common schools; (2) appointed by the Governor; (3) two years; (4) county board of public instruction.

Georgia.—(1) County school commissioner; (2) by county board of education; (3) four years; (4) county board; five members elected by grand jury for four-year terms.

Illinois.—(1) County superintendent of schools; (2) elected by the people; (3) four years.

Indiana.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) by township trustees of county; (3) two years; (4) county board of education; consists of county superintendent and township trustees, and the presidents of the city and town school boards.

Iowa.—(1) County superintendent; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

Kansas.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

Kentucky.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

Louisiana.—(1) Parish (county) superintendent of public schools; (2) appointed by parish board; (3) not specified; (4) parish board of directors of public schools for every parish of the State (except the parish of Orleans), five to nine in number, appointed by the State board quadrennially.

Maine.—(1) No county supervision.

Maryland.—(1) Secretary of county school commissioners, who acts also as county examiner and treasurer of the board; (2) appointed by county board of school commissioners; (3) not specified; (4) board of county school commissioners, appointed by judges of circuit court for two years.

Massachusetts.—(1) No county supervision.

Michigan.—(1) Secretary of county board of school examiners; (2) elected by county board of school examiners; (3) three years; (4) county board of school examiners.

Minnesota.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) by the people; (3) two years.

Mississippi.—(1) County superintendent of education; (2) by State board of education; (3) two years; (4) county school board, appointed by county superintendent and the board of supervision.

Missouri.—(1) county commissioner of public schools; (2) by the people; (3) two years.

Nebraska.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) by the people; (3) two years.

Nevada.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

New Hampshire.—(1) No county supervision.

New Jersey.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) by State board of education, subject to approval of freeholders.

New York.—(1) School commissioners (may be more than one in a county); (2) elected by the people; (3) three years.

North Carolina.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) by county board of education, the county commissioners, and the justices of the peace; (3) two years; (4) county boards of education, elected biennially, the justices of the peace, and the county commissioners.

Ohio.—(1) No county supervision; (4) county board of examiners, appointed triennially by probate judge.

Oregon.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

Pennsylvania.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) by the school directors of county; (3) three years.

Rhode Island.—(1) No county supervision.

South Carolina.—(1) County school commissioner; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

Tennessee.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) by county court; (3) two years.

Texas.—(1) County judge (performs duties of county superintendent); (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

Vermont.—(1) No county superintendent.

Virginia.—(1) County superintendent of schools; (2) appointed by State board of education; (3) four years; (4) county school board, consisting of the county superintendent and district trustees.

West Virginia.—(1) County superintendent of free schools; (2) by the people; (3) two years.

Wisconsin.—(1) County superintendent of public instruction; (2) elected by the people; (3) two years.

The PRESIDENT: As several inquiries have been made as to whether Mr. Oscar H. Cooper is present or not, I will read a telegram from him:

Important legislation prevents my presence with you.

OSCAR H. COOPER.

Mr. W. E. SHELDON: In answer to a number of inquiries that have been handed to me in regard to the volume of the proceedings of the National Association for 1886, I will say that all members of the National Educational Association for the year 1886 are entitled to one copy of the proceedings of the annual meeting at Topeka. Those persons who have not received their copies can be supplied by presenting their certificates of membership to Mr. Zalmon Richards, of this city. Copies will be sold for \$1.50 each, or \$1.75 if sent by mail. Copies of the proceedings of the Association for previous years can also be furnished by Mr. Richards at \$1 per volume, except for a few years.

The convention then took a recess for five minutes.

After the recess Dr. Rickoff's paper was discussed.

Dr. WILLIAM A. MOWRY, of Boston, said:

When at home I read in the programme as the subject to be discussed, "A County, City, State, and National Certificate," I was appalled. I do not feel so now, having heard Dr. Rickoff's paper. He has told us how we may make a national certificate for all the States. After all it is only bearing another name. This matter of the certification of teachers, "approbating" them, as we used to say, with a certificate of approbation, as you have heard in the paper which was read, lies at the foundation of all good school keeping. The whole thing depends upon the character of the teacher, and the character of the teacher is determined by the committee who carry on this examination. There is the great evil all over this country, that we have not found the right method of examining and certifying these teachers, and what are you going to do about it? There comes in the practical side of the matter. I take it that it will be impossible for us to formulate a system that would apply in all cases, and have one grade of certificates for all schools, or

a certificate for all the States, or a certificate for all the counties in one State.

What would be proper in a country town, and best, would not answer at all in some city which had maintained excellent schools for a long series of years. What would be proper in one State would not answer the purpose so well in another. We have old communities and new communities; sometimes the new communities outstrip the old ones, and have the best of everything—the best plans, the best methods of electing school boards, and the best arrangements for issuing certificates. Then there are communities, some of them old ones, that are still behind. Therefore, I take it, that there is no inflexible rule that this association should adopt and recommend to the country.

The subject is a broad one, and in the discussion I suppose it would be proper for different speakers to take up different points and speak of what they have in mind. There are, then, one or two more remarks which I will venture to make. There is a great diversity of practice in the different States, and in different cities of the same State, and in the different schools of the country, but I take it that we all agree that we ought not to have large school boards having this matter in charge. I have in mind a city of 125,000 inhabitants, which has a school board managing those schools, composed of 63 persons, 63 men having actual control and handling of all the arrangements of the schools, including the gradations, promotions, building school houses, hiring teachers and placing them at their work and changing them. All the machinery of the schools is divided among 63 persons; when it comes to the matter of their duty in granting certificates what do they do? Practically they do not do much of anything; they have a subcommittee to examine these teachers, but sometimes this works in one way and sometimes in another. Sometimes they have rigid examinations and sometimes only nominal ones. In such a case as that, I want to suggest, in the first place, a small school board—I would say not over half a dozen persons, men and women, to form that board, and that the school board should have one member from the common council of the city and one member from the board of aldermen to represent those two departments of the city government. This school board should be chosen for a term of years, the longer the term the better, so as to make a continuous, permanent board. Then, when it comes to the matter of the examination of teachers, and also to the matter of examining the schools, another plan should be engrafted upon this, and that is the adding to the school board of six good teachers, whether from the public schools of the city or from private schools matters little, if only they are real; but they should be teachers who understand the matter of school work. I am not sure that I should like to intrust the whole matter of examining the applicants, even to a board of that sort, to these teachers exclusively; for the present, perhaps, it would be best to have this a compound board, one-half teachers and one-half members of the school board.

The examination should be conducted in a definite way. It should not be altogether an examination in writing upon subjects named, upon specific topics, with questions proposed, but there should be some element of this kind in it, as well as oral questions and answers. I am speaking now of the examination of what might be called "the rank and file" of teachers, the ordinary teachers of the various schools of a large city. These are mostly women. But that should not be all. I would say that all the work which relates to the scholarship of the teacher should count but one-half in summing up. The other half should relate to tact in teaching and to matters of morals and character.

This second part of this examination seems to me of great importance. I have known that to be carried out as I am giving it. There is a company of teachers taking this examination, and they have the written questions. They have written their answers, and they go in for the oral examination, it may be in grammar, in geography, or in arithmetic. These teachers should be known only by numbers. Each one of these teachers, after passing this written and oral examination, now comes before the whole board. "Well, Miss Jones, you have taught school, have you?" "Yes, sir." "How long?" She tells about it. She has not uttered three sentences before these men know something about her ability to teach school. Continue this examination until it is satisfactory. It is a study now of nature, of tact, of character, and these examiners will easily mark it with a great deal of accuracy, and that is a matter of as much importance as scholarship. There is a great deal of tact and character which cannot be put into written questions and answers but which would be marked on a school.

Now what next? The next thing is, for what grade this certificate shall be. I want to say here that you should have only one certificate for primary grades, intermediate grades, and grammar grades, below the first assistant in the grammar school.

Here are twenty persons that have been examined to day. Twelve of them passed, and have been approved by these examiners, but here is one who stands first; that number is entitled to the first vacancy, no matter what or where it is. It may be primary, it may be grammar, but that best teacher, who has passed the highest examination, takes the first vacancy, the next one the second, and so on. After they have been appointed they can be changed, promoted, or discharged. Here is one teacher who strikes the medium between the youngest and the oldest. That teacher may be fitted for the older scholars and she will gravitate that way. The salary is the same, it is immaterial, and in that way your teacher is put in the right position, where she can do the best work most faithfully and successfully. I do not know but that some such plan as this would be feasible.

One other thing which has been mentioned by Dr. Rickoff: The public interest, and particularly State and National interest, will be promoted

by a constant interchange if this is properly conducted. I was delighted last summer to visit a western city, one of those places that have all the best elements of the American school systems; I refer to the city of Denver. There I found one of the best school systems to be found anywhere, and it has this peculiarity: they do not feel that their high school is established mainly to educate teachers for the city. Their high school is for a different purpose; it is to educate citizens and not teachers only. Therefore a girl just emerging from the high school does not feel within six months that she has a mortgage on the city for a place as teacher. They do not allow any graduate of the high school to teach in the schools of that city until after one year's experience in teaching somewhere else. What did that superintendent say to me? "There is no one normal school anywhere from which I have been drawing teachers; when, therefore, vacancies occur, we get teachers from everywhere;" and I know that they are getting the best teachers to-day in the country. I think this would be a good plan for some New England States that I know of.

The Hon. H. S. JONES, of Erie, Pa., wished to protest against the current method of issuing certificates based merely upon the results of purely scholastic examination; the questions asked are puerile in importance, and the replies thereto are only scraps from the text-book; no real improvement in the quality of teachers can occur except when this method of examining is abandoned. A primary school teacher of some experience and of singular excellence was once, in his experience, in danger of rejection because she could not pass the formal examination required by the Pennsylvania school law of 1854, still in force; the superintendent before whom the matter came was advised by him (Mr. Jones) to examine her as an expert primary teacher, and not as to her actual knowledge of such subjects as "per cent., banking, stocks," and like topics, which in primary grades she would never be required to teach at all. On the other hand, a raw girl-graduate from his high school recently obtained a highly graded certificate after an examination in the required studies, though she knew nothing about the art of teaching. Examinations like this were of no value in ascertaining practical teaching ability. Indeed, a general question often was more valuable as a test. Lately Mr. Jones had asked a lady who wished to be employed as a primary teacher, "What can you do in the school room, madam, that another lady, equally well educated in the ordinary branches, would be likely not to do?" She did not reply. He asked again, "Can you, for example, smile naturally and laugh heartily on occasion?" To which she answered, "I do not know what you mean."

Mr. ZALMON RICHARDS begged to interrupt the discussion for a moment to say that copies of the proceedings of the National Educational Association, at Topeka, had been received, and that all members of the Association who had paid dues for 1886 were entitled to copies. He would also state that the Ebbitt House would accommodate all delegates at \$2.50 per diem.

Dr. B. A. HINSDALE resumed the discussion of Dr. Rickoff's paper. He said: So far as the certification of teachers is concerned, the country presents simply chaos, from which it will be a long time in emerging. Teachers certainly have great reason to complain of the unreasonable rules and restrictions which prevail at the present time. When we consider that the educational affairs of this country are administered by the States, and by township and subdistrict and municipal boards, the question as to how we are to lift ourselves out of the inconveniences of this position is not so obvious. I understood Dr. Rickoff to suggest that this section should take some action looking to the further discussion of this topic. It seems to me that it is hardly well to drop the matter where it is. In my opinion, much ought to be done towards correcting the things of which we complain. A good deal is to be done by discussing it, and informing the public mind, and I do not know any body of men in the country who are better qualified for this than the superintendents of the country. I would move that a committee of five be appointed, to report during this session at such time as the chairman may designate, upon what further action, if any, is advisable.

The motion was agreed to, and the president appointed Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, of Ohio; Dr. M. A. Newell, of Maryland; Superintendent F. M. Campbell, of Oakland, Cal.; Dr. Richard Edwards, of Illinois, and Superintendent W. N. Barringer, of Newark, N. J., such committee.

The PRESIDENT: The Chair again states that the Department will meet March 15, at 9 a. m., with the understanding that at 1.30 it adjourn to call upon President Cleveland. To night the Institute of Civics will join us in our meeting.

At 4 o'clock p. m. the convention adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.

The convention re-assembled at 7.30 o'clock p. m., Tuesday, March 15, the American Institute of Civics meeting with the Department of Superintendence.

The PRESIDENT: I have the pleasure of introducing to you Dr. W. E. Sheldon, a representative from the Institute of Civics, and also president of the National Educational Association.

Dr. W. E. SHELDON: Since I entered the hall I have been informed that this was to be a joint meeting of the Department of Superintendence and the Institute of Civics. The subject taken for discussion this evening is very akin in its character to, and in harmony with, the spirit and interests and purposes of the Institute of Civics, and it seems very fortunate that those who are eminent educators from different sections of the country should take an interest in that which pertains to good citizenship, not only in its intellectual aspect, namely, knowledge of the civil polity, ethics and economics of our Government, but that we should also be interested in its practical application. The purposes of the

American Institute of Civics are to throw light, by means of the public schools, the higher institutions of learning, the public press, and public sentiment, to the great importance of a general and thoroughly practical knowledge of the elements of sound citizenship; these elements include whatever will secure to this Republic integrity of character among its citizens, and honest and efficient officers in every department, from the humblest, high and low, general and local. It affords me great pleasure to emphasize the duty of educators in training the young that they may become useful members of society, intelligent, co-operative citizens in all that is good in society and in government. In harmony with this is the address of our excellent friend, Hon. Le Roy D. Brown, of Ohio, who is to speak to night on "Civil Service and Public Schools," and whom I have the honor to introduce to you.

CIVIL SERVICE AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

By the Hon. LE ROY D. BROWN, State commissioner of common schools for Ohio.

It is with great pleasure, fellow teachers and fellow citizens, that I stand before you to open the discussion upon what seems to me to be one of the most important subjects that has been recently brought before this convention of school superintendents. The paper which I have prepared for this occasion was written some weeks ago, and not knowing at the time that it was to be a joint meeting of the two associations, after the action of this Department last night, I decided that it would be perhaps better for me merely to open the discussion on this subject, believing that there are other members present who will have something of interest to offer us.

Once every year this association of school superintendents assembles at Washington. In the nation's capital you renew your vows to your country, and you rededicate yourselves to the great cause of education.

As executive officers of the respective State systems of public schools, which you represent and which you are unselfishly and laboriously striving to improve, you are interested in all that pertains to administrative and executive work. As superintendents of schools, or as heads of systems of schools, you are profited by observing the conduct and the methods of governors, presidents, and other executive officers; for, by such observation, you are enabled the better to discharge the duties which devolve upon you in your own fields of labor.

During the last fifty years the progress of public education in the United States has been marvelous. The growth of State systems of schools in this country may be considered among the wonders of the age. Even the prophetic Horace Mann, who was secretary of the Massachusetts board of education a half century ago, did not foresee the gigantic proportions to which these schools have developed.

Strange it would be if a growth, at once so rapid and luxuriant, should be altogether sound and enduring.

In the affections and judgment of the people are found all that is good in our Government, but in the elective system by which school officers are generally chosen lies the greatest weakness of our school administration. The time was when only the best men were placed on school committees or elected to serve on boards of education.

But that time is, alas, too rapidly passing away. The "spoils system" which obtains in American politics has worked its way steadily but surely into the boards that control the schools. If a school-house site is to be selected, not the site which is the most desirable is chosen, but that site for which a corrupt committee can obtain the most money for their votes. If a school building is to be erected, the best architect and the best builder are not so much desired as an architect and a builder who will give up the largest per cent. of their remuneration for votes. The "spoils system" extends even to the employment of superintendents and teachers. The politician on the board of education gives his support to those from whom he has received favors, or from those who will reciprocate in the future. In the most vital matters, merit is of less consequence than "influence." What is the result? Poorer teachers, inferior schools, and a growing lack of faith in public education. Better the total annihilation of the people's schools than that these schools should become fountains of political pollution or streams of financial impurity.

Fortunately an adequate remedy for these evils is suggested by the the history of "Civil-Service Reform." In my judgment, the friends of free Government and of free schools owe a lasting debt of gratitude to Dorman B. Eaton and his colaborers. I wish that Mr. Eaton's great work on "Civil Service in Great Britain" could be in every public library, and that it might be studied by every American. In that volume we learn of the advantages of the "merit system" in the appointment of public officers, and it is the "merit system" which we need to-day in the selection of school officers, school superintendents, and teachers.

The method of applying the "merit system" in our State would probably not be the best in all States, for State systems of education are dissimilar in many respects. But as courts are agencies of the people, and as such are subject to the will of the people, I am of the opinion that in some States it would be best for courts to appoint boards of education. In other States boards of education would better be appointed by a State board of education. It is probable that, in some cities at least, good boards of education may be best secured by appointments made by city councils. But the method of appointment is not so important as the kind of men appointed. These men should have fitness for their duties. An intelligence and a character qualification should be required by the appointing power. In suggesting so radical a change in school management, I shall not be surprised at opposition

The politicians will oppose the change. The goody-goody superintendent who owes his position to influential relatives, to his church associates, or to his political friends will oppose the change; and, in doing so, will probably say to the people that their voice should be heard in the choosing of school officers at general elections, forgetting that courts, city councils, and State boards of education can more surely choose efficient school officers than the political caucus which too often thwarts the will of the people by giving them worthless candidates who, in the excitement of election day, are chosen.

Throughout our country the general rule prevails that members of boards of education and members of school committees shall be elected to their positions. In the abstract, that mode of choosing these important officers may be correct; but as I have observed the working of the schools in different States, including my own, I believe that the time has come when some modification of that mode must be made. I would not say anything to lessen the interest in school affairs felt by those patriotic citizens who, without pay, have endeavored to discharge the duties pertaining to members of school committees and boards of education. I would not say an unwise word at this meeting that would affect in any way the future usefulness of the public schools of our country; but this is the place in which a free utterance of the truths that we believe should be made. And I am here to assert, and assert, I think with facts that would have great weight with a jury if the opportunity to present these facts was offered, that the "spoils system," of which we have heard so much in this country, has worked its way so far that many boards of education are under its unwholesome influence. I can remember, young man as I am, the time in my own State when only the most worthy men in our towns, villages, and townships expected to be made members of boards of education, but I am sorry to state that the political and personal influences that always accompany the "spoils system" in the great field of politics have come to be felt in the selection of these boards and of their employés. Men who have no capacity, as far as one is able to judge, seek these positions, and openly seek them, for the money that they obtain by corrupt awards of the contracts to be made by them in the discharge of their duties. One of the greatest school scandals that has gone forth from the largest city in my State grew out of a contract for the purchased of a school-house site. The most undesirable site was bought, and bought at an extravagant figure, and some of the money was traced directly to the board of education that had relations with the committee who recommended the purchase. Very often if the employment of an architect is required, so that the most desirable school building may be erected, the most competent architect is not selected, and the man who will surrender the largest share of the cost to the committee obtains the prize. If the matter is the election of superintendents of schools, at least in some of the towns and cities of this country, and I have special reference to Ohio when I make this

statement, it is not the most worthy man, not the man with the longest experience, who is likely to be elected; but it is the man who is able to pay the largest sum of money to be divided by the committee. The time has come, I think, when this Department of Superintendence should seek a remedy for these evils.

I had occasion to read, not many weeks ago, a telegraphic dispatch which informed the person addressed that a city of 20,000 inhabitants without a superintendent of schools was in such a condition that the pitiful sum of \$100 paid by him would secure his election to the position. I am not certain that it is at all in good taste for me to refer thus to special cases, and I shall not do it again on this occasion, but I have not prepared this plain statement without fortifying myself with the facts, which can be produced if necessary, and I believe I am stating what has been felt by others who are present here to-night.

I must not prolong this discussion to a very great extent in this direction. Suffice it to say that I charge that the "spoils system" has taken possession of many boards of education in the United States. I would not say that the remedy needed in Ohio is the remedy that is needed in West Virginia, or in New York, or in Mississippi; I only state it as my opinion that in some way we should change the mode of electing our boards of education. It seems to me that we might make a definite standard of qualification for the place a necessary condition. In some States, and I am inclined to think that this is true of Ohio, relief may be found in appointing the members by the same powers that appoint the State superintendent of public instruction. I have just completed a tour of travel through three or four of the Southern States, and especially in Florida, and I take this opportunity to caution our friends who are doing such noble work in building up education in the South that they should not deprive the State board of education of the authority to appoint local boards of education. It seems to me that we must appoint by State authority many of these boards of education, enough at any rate to have a leavening influence on the whole.

One of the subjects that has most interested me for several years back is this subject of civil-service reform. We have this topic before us to-night, and I for one would acknowledge my gratitude, and the gratitude of my profession, to Dorman B. Eaton, and to those who labor with him and especially to the American Institute of Civics, that comes out with boldness to stand for the merit system as opposed to the spoils system, not only in the selection of subordinate officers of the nation and State, but also in the selection of school superintendents, members of boards of education, and teachers. I would that Dorman B. Eaton's book relating to civil service in Great Britain could be read by every school superintendent, by every teacher, and by every friend of education in the United States.

I rejoice, as I converse with members of this Association, and men eminent in public life, to know that here in Washington the cause of

civil-service reform is assuredly gaining ground, as it seems that the remedy for these evils will lie along the line of the principles advocated by the friends of that reform. We cannot if we will, separate our local self-government from the government of States, nor the government of States from the national Government. The influence of Washington extends down into the humblest school districts throughout the entire country, and I had this in mind when suggesting this subject as a suitable one for discussion at this time, and I still hope that the result of our discussions and our deliberations on this part of the programme will strengthen those here at the national Capital who are standing by the cause of civil-service reform. Now I have the hope that the discussion that may follow will result in bringing out of this body of school superintendents views favorable to this organization to which I have referred, the American Institute of Civics, that stands by us, and stands by the principle involved in the merit system, and to this end, Mr. Chairman, I will now close.

Mr. Manly of Ohio, and Mr. Butcher of West Virginia, the next speakers on the programme, not being present, the president introduced the Hon. B. S. MORGAN, State superintendent of West Virginia, who said:

Ladies and Gentlemen: I assure you that I had expected to take but a very little part in this discussion.

I saw the programme was full of able speakers, and I understood that other gentlemen were prepared with a great deal of fullness on this subject, and so I proposed to content myself with being a listener, but as a worker in this great cause of education, I deem it my duty to add a word of approbation and commendation to what has been said in regard to civil-service reform and the public schools. There are a great many people who do not believe in civil-service reform, many of each political party who do not so believe. I have no doubt in my mind that the extent and true nature of civil-service reform in its application to the administration of our Government is but very poorly understood. What is civil-service reform as understood by the reader of the newspapers to-day? I think he would gather this idea: that civil-service reform is simply to test the fitness of an applicant to hold office under the Government by certain intellectual and moral tests, by his ability to answer a reasonable per cent. of a given number of questions prepared by a board of examiners upon certain branches of knowledge. We can all readily see the importance of intellectual qualifications to hold certain positions, but it is very difficult to convince a great many people that the fitness to hold office should be determined by these intellectual tests and not by political principles. Admitting that civil-service reform is right, admitting that it is the true principle of the administration of our Government, is it not doubly applicable to the administration of our educational institutions? A large part of a clerk's duty in

one of the Departments is almost mechanical now, but if, as has been asserted by the honorable gentleman preceding me, civil-service reform is already gaining ground with reference to the discharge of these simple clerical duties, ought not a similar reform in regard to the administration of our educational institutions be doubly applicable and worthy of the approbation and approval of all educated people everywhere? The teacher in the public school, the principal of the high school, the superintendent of the city schools has something more than mere mechanical, clerical duty to perform. There are certain duties that can only be estimated and measured after long years of trial, only be measured by special qualifications to discharge those duties. If, after the test of a trial, after the test of experience, it is found that the individual who presides over the educational institutions of city, county, township, and State possesses these qualifications, would it not stand to reason that the principles of civil-service reform should govern his selection and retention, since they are applicable to a greater extent than in the discharge of some mechanical duty? Civil-service reform, it occurs to me, has an application to the educational work of the country in three respects. A very brief examination of the educational systems of any of the States will prove that it had an humble beginning, and that the State superintendent in a large number of them is tacitly understood, when elected, to hold his place until there is sufficient cause for his removal; while the teachers are not expressly told so, yet it is fully understood that they will hold their positions until there is cause for removal. These facts evidence the beginning of a profession; that is, the beginning of a true professional character in the work of education. I find in a Maryland county adjoining my State that the teachers are elected to teach in the public schools, and it is understood that they will hold their positions indefinitely, and they cannot be dismissed except upon thirty days' notice, and no teacher can be discharged or resign his position except upon such notice. There the professional character of school-work is thoroughly recognized.

If there is anything base in the public school system of the country it is the prostitution of it to political, partisan ends. Now, I believe in party; I do not believe in divorcing politics from education; but that a principal of a school or superintendent of a city or county is qualified to discharge his duties because he holds to a certain political faith is all wrong, and I am glad to say that there is a sentiment prevailing that it is not a true test. I think we see evidences that civil-service reform is applicable to teaching in three aspects: First, in regard to the examination of teachers; second, in regard to tenure of office; and third, in regard to the unification of educational work.

Now, a word in regard to the certification of teachers. The work of the public school teacher, I mean outside of the large cities, is a precarious sort of work, and it is not even of a semi-professional character.

The public school work in my State, and in a large number of other States, is a sort of recruiting ground for all other professions. There are no fixed limits or standard of qualifications which a man or woman must reach to be called a "teacher," as the physician qualifies himself for his work, or the lawyer, or the minister. There is nothing of that kind. There are no limits or professional standards, and without these fixed professional standards we cannot have a profession.

The bright young man or woman just from the normal school or college has, perhaps, a better chance than if he or she had fifteen or twenty years of experience, and I have known of teachers from the academy or normal school passing a better examination than the teacher of ten years' experience. There is no distinction between that inexperienced teacher and the experienced professional teacher. I say that our methods of certification of teachers are defective from the fact that there is no recognition of experience, special qualifications, special fitness for the work; that the principal test, the general test the country over, is simply intellectual qualification and nothing more. Of course, teachers must have good general moral reputation, but I mean that the intellectual test only is applied, and it is so applied that there is only one grade of success. If we could have true civil-service reform in the certification of teachers there would be several grades.

The teacher ought to have some recognition of his intellectual qualifications, and there ought to be special recognition of professional experience, because there must be, in order to make a teacher, intellectual qualification, professional qualification, academical training, and there must also be actual experience in public school work. So far in our examinations we do not separate these, and there is no recognition paid to these distinct qualities that fit the teacher for his work and really make him a teacher. I think, if we could get some sort of civil-service reform applicable to the certification of teachers it would go much towards helping to make it a profession and not simply an avocation.

The president next introduced the Hon. W. N. BARRINGER, of Newark, N. J., who said :

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen : I feel somewhat out of place in attempting to talk before so many of you, many of whom I know are so much better fitted to discuss this question than I am, but as the gentlemen who have preceded me have stated this fact, that we are not able to govern ourselves, that the elective principle, of which we have boasted so much and so long, and about which we have said so much to the people of the world, is a failure, and all that we have said and done for the last one hundred years in the line of self-government, in the line of exercising the right of suffrage, in the line of the sovereign power of the people to select proper rulers and officers, seems, from what we have heard to-night, to be a failure. I am not prepared to accept this altogether, though I can see that there is some trouble in

that direction; and yet I am not prepared to say that we should shift the responsibility from the elective to the appointing power, or that we should gain very much if we did so. I should at once want to know who appoints the appointing power, and I am afraid that when we should get back to the foundation we should find that if the foundation be not pure, the system will not be pure, and that we shall be no nearer our purpose than we were at the beginning.

We trace all of our success and power back to the people. There I stand, and there I propose to stand. I do not propose to run because I see a little difficulty, like a man's hand.

I propose to face that difficulty. I never knew a difficulty of any kind to be overcome by running away from it, but I have known many a difficulty to be scattered and overcome by facing it in a manly way. Now, the trouble appears to be that there is a little loss somewhere of a sense of duty. There is your trouble, ladies and gentlemen, a little loss of a sense of duty; that is, when a man is elected to a position, instead of endeavoring to find out what his duty is, and with a good loyal heart and a strong fearless arm to perform it, he is seeking for place and for power and spoils. I understand that, and you understand it, too. Now, I propose to make two or three inquiries. I do not care about your answering them to-night, for I do not think you can do so. It is a good thing sometimes to carry a question in our minds that we cannot answer immediately. It is good exercise for us to have tough questions, and to wrestle with them, so that our intellectual and moral fiber may gain power by using strength. Mr. Chairman, how is it that this people, which has been growing up for a hundred years past, has fallen back in its sense of duty; that it has not got that stern, rugged sense of duty that nerved so many of the earlier generation and helped it to perform its duty?

Well, I have been looking about a little as a superintendent of schools in New Jersey for the last 10 years, and I have been watching the course, and the scope, and the methods, and the sentiments that govern and modify the work in our schools, and I am not sure but some of this lack of a sense of duty arises from some of our methods and some of our ways of bringing up the young people. Not many days ago a principal said to me, "How is it that we cannot have teachers that are able to perform the work? Here is So-and-so; she cannot write well enough to teach the subject properly. Here is another not sufficiently versed in arithmetic to do the work as it should be done to teach her classes." I immediately inquired further into the matter, returned to him, and, looking him in the face, gently but firmly said: "How is this? What did you do for that teacher when you had her? She came from your school. You took her from the primary school. She has been trained in the primary school under your care and management, and she has gone through all of these places under your hands, and yet you say at this late day that she cannot write well enough to teach. What were you doing all these years?"

He looked down at the floor and made no reply. That was some weeks ago, and he has said nothing about it since, and probably never will re-open *that* case.

After fifteen years of the hardest kind of study in this school work, I have found out everything but the right thing. One day when I was busy with a class of boys, and their manliness would now and then assert itself, I said: "Why, I have found out what a boy is good for." The problem was solved. "He is good to make a man of." The girl is good to make a woman of, nothing else under God's heaven can you do with her; then I said to myself, my business is not to make officers, school commissioners, presidents, lawyers, physicians, not even to make preachers of the Gospel, but to make men and women, honest, upright, pure, and righteous. Out of these you can make anything you want. You can make teachers and school commissioners and presidents, who will not profess civil-service reform, but who will practice it, whether we aid them or not. Why? Because *they* are civil service all the way through; they were made so in their training. Now, as we go back into our schools let us see, when we meet our teachers, when we examine them and promote them, if we cannot appeal to their sense of duty.

The next speaker on the programme was Thomas P. Ballard, of Columbus, Ohio, who was introduced by President Young.

CIVIL SERVICE AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Mr. BALLARD said:

The consideration which prompts our political scientist to urge the reform of the civil service is the commanding necessity at this time of the development of the functions and powers of our executive systems. It is no doubt true that we have neglected, more than other countries, the study of the science of administration. In our national growth hitherto, as a number of writers have shown, we have been chiefly concerned with acts of legislation—framing constitutions and drafting codes of laws. It may be difficult enough to make laws; it is a greater task to enforce them. Shakespeare says, "I can easier teach twenty what 'twere good to be done than be one of twenty to follow my own teaching." This is as true of the State as of the individual. The national civil service, of which the President is the head; each State civil service, of which the Governor is the head; and each municipal civil service, of which the mayor is the head, need, much more than in the past, to be strengthened at the hands of the people. The political problems of the immediate future appeal for solution more to our administrative than to our legislative system. There is urgent demand for us to learn how to enforce laws that protect the sacredness of the ballot, that restrain intemperance and gambling, that preserve public rights involved in our railroad, telegraph, and other corporations; how to maintain the supremacy of law

in this ominous warfare between labor and capital against corrupt tendencies of money power, against all pernicious forms of socialism, communism, and anarchism. Never in the history of the world has government been called to tasks of administration so vital.

The need of reform of civil service is fundamental to these and should be secured first. It would be just as great folly for us to expect the execution of proper laws affecting these questions before our complex systems of civil service are adequately organized and manned as it would be to go to war with a great power with an incompetent military service.

The arguments in favor of the reform are so strong and appeal so directly to the patriotism of our people, whose judgments have always been worthy of highest confidence when they understand an issue, that I take it for granted it has come to stay; that the competitive system of examinations will triumph over political favoritism, unless a party in power that wants all the offices is willing to pay all the taxes. This is a Government of the people, for the people, and by the people, and not of a party, for a party, and by a party.

Examinations for the civil service will determine two things: First, the general fitness of the candidate; second, the special fitness. This general fitness, or education, should be possessed by all citizens, especially by all in the employ of the State. There will be special requirements for different offices. The examination for office of a printer may differ in some respects from that for a clerkship. It may not be the function of a common school to give this *special* training, but it is unquestionably its function to give the *general* training. The State as educator employs over 227,000 teachers, which exceeds the number of all our lawyers, physicians, clergymen, and journalists combined. It spends \$100,000,000 annually. This is a vast system and a large expenditure. The result should be substantial and worthy of the confidence of the State, the citizen, and the child. The State, as *employer*, is bound in the highest honor to itself, the tax-payer, and to the pupil, to show its confidence in the training it imparts, else it should modify that training. There has been no little criticism against making the common school education part of the test for civil-service appointments. Is it not a great injustice for the State, as *teacher*, to take twelve years from so important a period of a child's life, holding out the assurance that the education during these years is the best possible for the duties of the future, and, when as employer, it determines the competency of its own servants to ignore its own work?

What then, we ask, is to be the permanent and practical relation of our common schools to the civil service of the future? It is plain that the function of the teacher in the eye of the State must be directed to laying the foundation for citizenship—a training broad enough to include the physique, the intellect, and the entire character of the pupil. This education ought not to differ from an education the State might

justly require in all civil servants. The best general training for the civil service should duplicate the best general training for citizenship. There is no necessity to impress upon this audience the high need of intelligent citizenship. General Grant has said, "Where the citizen is the sovereign and the official the servant, where no power is exercised except by the will of the people, it is important that the sovereign—the people—should possess intelligence. The free school is the promoter of that intelligence which is to preserve us as a free nation."

Momentous question this: How to train the American citizen for the great duties and problems of the future. The State through the schools must do its utmost. The entire work of public education must converge to this great end. If it is accomplishing this purpose the State must put the seal of approval on the result; if it is not, the system should be abandoned or the course of instruction remodelled. The large jury will be the body of American citizens who have had this training, whose intelligence will finally determine the value of the school, and of its course of study. Civil-service reform should pre-eminently command the support of our schoolmen. I am not able to see any act of the Government in recent years which will contribute more to the interest of popular education. It is simply the assurance of the State to all boys and girls in our schools that if they work well and faithfully they will have an opportunity, so far as it is concerned, to gain honor and position; this encouragement will stimulate in every school room well-directed and practical effort. As Sir Charles Trevelyan wrote to Mr. Eaton concerning the British system:

The opening of the civil and military service in its influence upon national education is equivalent to a hundred thousand scholarships, because, unlike such rewards in general, they are offered for the encouragement of youthful learning and good conduct in every class of the community.

We are met here with a certain distrust of our common school education which has found expression in much recent criticism. Our educators recognize its defects and are ready to make and receive criticisms in their work. Among the most exacting judges are the schoolmen themselves. Let me quote briefly:

Dr. Wm. T. Harris has recently written:

I came to detest them (*i. e.*, the city schools) very bitterly because I loved individual freedom and hated mere forms as such. I desired to come at the substance of the study and grudged the time wasted over the mechanism of it.

Ex-President Andrew D. White testifies:

As a matter of fact, we have made no such progress in extinguishing illiteracy as has been made in Germany. England, France, and Italy even are rapidly developing a system of public schools far more complete and better throughout than we can show, save possibly in two or three of our States.

General Fry, before the United States Military Institute, recently opposed the introduction of our common school course into military service. "It can hardly be claimed," said he, "that the selection of men

for making and executing our laws and city ordinances proves that the public school system has done anything to improve voters."

Here is represented some of the distrust of the schools. The distrust of the civil service is based largely on corrupt methods of professional politicians. The politicians ignore the school system largely. They have not only used it for dispensing patronage, but have ridiculed the project of making its course weigh in the choice of men for the services of the State. The educated classes, on the other hand, are not only becoming indifferent to official life, but seriously if not criminally negligent of their duties of citizenship. It is a common remark: they avoid the primaries. In the decisive judgments which determine men and methods too often the worst elements dictate. Sovereign power threatens to fall into the hands of a minority, among whom are open violators of law and enemies of good government. How shall these things be corrected? We have found the needs of the civil service to be an intelligent citizenship, and the great end of the schools is to educate for that citizenship. The State is at the head of the one as teacher, at the head of the other as employer. It should so conduct the schools as to supply the service and should so conduct the service as to stimulate and guide the work of the schools. Mutual confidence in both is greatly to be desired. Mutual distrust is a very serious evil. Our educated men have no right to criticize and ridicule the corruption of politics and of the civil service until they perform their own duties at the primaries and the polls. A confidence in our public men and politics must be earned and encouraged. A confidence in our schools and teachers must be earned and encouraged. Here in these civil-service examinations, when conducted in the most thorough manner, will be revealed both the confidence and the distrust.

Are the schools doing their part to establish this confidence? We answer readily "yes." There has been a remarkable stimulus in educational life during recent years. A steady work of reform is going on of which the public and the State are largely ignorant. Our schools are gradually emerging from the old mechanism of the past in which the course of study and text-books were the first consideration and the child's development subordinated to a more rational process which makes the child and his future in relation to himself and to the State the controlling consideration.

As Dr. Stanley Hall says: "The new education holds there is one thing in nature and one alone fitted to inspire all true men and women with more awe and reverence than Kant's starry heavens, and that is the soul and body of a healthy young child."

Let us note a few of the salient points in the work of this reform. As to reading, in the old method the pupils were merely taught how to read; in the new a taste for reading is being developed. A pernicious class of books and periodicals is sapping the morals of the people. We want a citizenship that will read, and that, too, what is worth reading.

This perhaps is the most fruitful work of the schools. Valuable teacher is he who sends the pupil out into the world with a taste for good books that will last him through life.

In *Grammar*.—There is reason for the defense of technical grammar. We cannot sacrifice exactness or ignore the mandates of the Queen's English. There is a victorious contest waged against the repeated process of spreading a sentence on a cold blackboard, and then cutting off its head, its hands, and feet until the life is all gone, taking up each member and scientifically determining elements of the first class, of the second class, third class, predicate and attribute, &c. Such routine methods imitate post-mortem examinations, which have their place, but a subordinate one. The pupils are now taught how to put ideas and life into words rather than how to take the life out of words.

In *Geography*.—Pupils are not required so much as formerly to memorize the names and locations of all the capes, bays, mountains, and rivers on the face of the globe, but this branch is made the foundation to an extended course in history in which, after a certain stage, geography is used more and more as the dictionary, to be referred to and not studied. The importance of history is becoming more and more recognized in the solution of our political and social problems.

In *Arithmetic*.—If the child's reading is giving him the companionship of other men for the benefit of his own development; if his grammar is enabling him to put his own ideas into language for the benefit of others; if history and geography are giving him experience, his mathematics trains for sound reasoning.

In fine, reading helps him to *get* ideas, grammar helps him to *give* ideas, geography and history enlighten his judgment from the past, mathematics for the present and future.

In addition to drawing, music, manual training, and other branches which are increasing the efficiency of the schools, let me make a plea for the elements of political science. Every child should leave the grammar school with some idea of the duties and functions of a *voter*. The whole trend of this discussion I submit as an argument in favor of incorporating it in our common school education.

After all the work of education is seen to be the work of statesmanship. The highest welfare of the civil service and of common schools is revealed in the relation of both to citizenship. We shall be aided in our solution if we examine more closely the functions of citizenship towards which our school-boy journeys.

At the age of five or six he enters school; for twelve years or more he pursues a course of reading, grammar, geography, arithmetic, &c. He is under a corps of painstaking and faithful teachers. They are as ready, I believe, as any body of officials to do disinterested work for the sake of the child—for the sake of the State. The boy has scarcely left the door of his school for the last time when the State invests him with all the duties and responsibilities involved in our universal suffrage.

He is an *individual citizen*. In that unseen realm of his own consciousness there is a government whose secret workings are beyond the penetration of all the world. As Whittier says :

Stand still my soul, in the silent dark,
I would question thee,
Alone in the shadow drear and stark
With God and me.

What my soul was thy errand here ?
Was it mirth or ease,
Or heaping up dust from year to year ?
“ Nay, none of these ! ”

In the silent presence of his own soul he must make and enforce law. He confronts all the forces which drag him to poverty, ignorance, and chaos. The laws of his own worthiness he must maintain, repeal, or disobey. “ Conviction,” Carlyle says, “ is worthless to him unless it convert itself into conduct.” There will be long and stormy struggles before he will be able to make his conduct bend to the mandate of a manly and urgent resolve. He must defend inalienable rights or abdicate ; he must meet social and political obligations or perish. To this end the school teaches him reading, grammar, geography, history, arithmetic, &c.

He is a citizen of a *city*. He faces the problem of municipal government. The city as an organic political unit has a local self-government it must maintain. It has duties to the Commonwealth and duties to its citizens. It may be difficult for our voter to see that the ballot which bears his command to pass an ordinance is heeded ; it will be more difficult to see that his command to enforce it is heeded. His citizenship already confronts the needs of its civil service in relation to all the antagonisms which threaten the morality, the credit, the intelligence, and prosperity of our municipal growth. To this end the schools teach him reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, &c.

He is the citizen of a *State*. He enters upon the weightier problems of his Commonwealth. It is an individual unit with thirty-seven others. His vote here must maintain a government with rights to defend and obligations to render. Upon his franchise hang dangers of centralization on the one hand and disunion on the other. Bribery, at the ballot and in the assembly, neglect of duty at the primary and at the capital, threaten its integrity and his liberty. Patriotism, home, friendship, and humanity, his own high destiny and that of his people, inspire and fortify him.

For all this the schools develop in him a taste for reading, for writing, and speaking

He is a citizen of the *Nation*. He votes now for laws demanded by needs of our increasing population. He has before him problems of tariff, of labor, of finance, of foreign and domestic policy. Above the din of party strife, above the clash of public with private interests,

above the clamor of the demagogue and the greed of the spoilsman, he bears in his hand a ballot which, *gratia Dei*, is to summon to victory the far reaching struggles of a nation, and establish happiness and peace in the homes of a law-abiding and free people.

For all this the schools aim to develop a taste for reading, a taste that will prompt the citizen to read what concerns his own destiny and that of his country, and a taste for writing and speaking that he may be able to contribute in some way, however meager, to the grand consummations of our civilization.

The next speaker was the Hon. GEORGE G. LUCKEY, of Pittsburgh, Pa., who said :

Ladies and Gentlemen : Out of this discussion I have obtained a great deal of encouragement. My friend from New Jersey (Mr. Barringer) thinks that civil service is not necessary ; if New Jersey can do without it the rest of us can too. The discussion this evening has opened up one point that perhaps is not generally understood, namely, what is civil-service reform ? Nearly every speaker has taken a different view of it. We ought to have this matter defined before discussing it, and we ought to know what we are talking about.

One gentleman states that all the troubles that we have, come because the people cannot be trusted with the appointing power, and yet many newspapers at the present time are saying that the United States Senate cannot be trusted because the people do not elect it, and that in order to have a pure Senate and a pure Government United States Senators must be elected by the people or else the Government cannot stand.

What is the result of taking this power from the people ? There is corruption in the administration of State and national and municipal governments. I know that this cannot be corrected by taking the power from the people and giving it to individuals. That is what is the trouble now. In the end, power confided to an individual becomes the object of desire by those combinations of people which are called, in the parlance of the day, "rings," and too often they seize the substance of such power. Something must be done to get this power back again into the hands of the people, for wherever they can exercise it there is purity. My friend from Cincinnati knows that in his State, of which we are so proud, and which furnishes so many precedents, if the people of Cincinnati could only get a fair vote in their municipal affairs all would be well. It is because this power has gone out of the hands of the people that we have this corruption. Let us see about the appointment of school directors. I know of one State where the Legislature took the local school offices from the hands of the people and put them into the hands of the courts ; then the judges exercised their prerogatives and appointed the school boards, and the schools got so bad that the Legislature had to take the duty from the judges and give it back to the people again. The courts appointed retired lawyers and retired merchants, and they met in their little board room and they discussed education,

and in one case where a proposition was made to build a school house one man said in all earnestness and candor, "Let us build a log school house. I know how good the schools were when we held them in a log cabin. We have no such schools nowadays; and see the money we can save; see how we can reduce taxes; let us build log school houses."

This whole subject of civil-service reform should be agitated and discussed; but after all, the whole discussion should turn on this question: How shall we educate the people so that they can govern themselves?

Dr. HENRY RANDALL WAITE, president of the American Institute of Civics, then spoke as follows:

Ladies and Gentlemen: I shall not undertake to throw light on the definition of the term "civil-service reform" more than to say this, that whether we interpret it as meaning one thing or another, we arrive finally at this simple and essential fact, that civil-service reform as a thing realized must have its foundation laid in the popular will, and in order that we may have a popular will that shall be a power from which shall grow this civil-service reform, we must make that will what it should be; and this brings us back to the recollection of the earnest words spoken by my friend from New Jersey. And this leads us to the consideration of what is the function of the public school. It is not, I may be permitted to say, merely to make men intelligent. It is not to establish a difference between men as respects literacy and illiteracy. It goes beyond that, or it has no right to draw its life-blood from the people. The public schools of the United States must be based, as a system, upon the necessity for a republican form of government, of making true men and women of the youth who are to be the people of a republic. And that you may so make them, the education of our youth must be founded in the teaching of those ethical principles which lie at the basis of right conduct in social, political, and national life. Are we teaching to-day those ethical principles in the schools of the land? I am not here to find fault with teachers, nor to criticise them adversely on the assumption that they are not doing their duty in this respect. It is not the purpose of the institute which I have the honor to represent to raise any questions of this sort in the work which it is doing to-day. It is simply to bring to the minds of the great army of men and women, who are laying their hands upon the rulers of the future either with bane or blessing, to bring to their minds this question: Am I, as a teacher, doing what I am called upon to do as a servant of this nation in the upraising of men and women who shall do their whole duty when life's burdens rest upon them and when they are called upon to assume their part among men and women true and pure? I ask you as superintendents to carry this question before the teachers who are under your direction. I ask you as earnest men, who have at heart the best interests of the future of this country, who have power and influence, to say whether it is not within your power in the

exercise of this influence, to inspire the teachers of the land with a more earnest purpose in regard to this question of training up American citizens. If we would have civil-service reform, we must begin where those influences lie which make civil-service reform a possibility. If the spring is impure we cannot expect the streams that flow from it to be pure. If we do not make the boys and girls feel that the highest aims in life are those which have in them manliness and womanliness, that are based on high ideals and high aspirations, we cannot expect them when they come to the exercise of power and privilege, as men and women, to be what they should be if the fabric of this nation is to be strong.

“Civics!” I hope when the term comes to be distinctly interpreted as a word in the language that it will throw light upon many questions which have been in the dark hitherto. We have treated these problems from one or another point of view, leaving out that knowledge that we ought to place before the youth of the nation in order that they might see their duties from all of the stand-points of life. We have taught in our colleges political economy, we have given an education which is selfish, we have not taught our young men enough of the principles of law, and more than all, we have sent them forth into the world with too little regard for the principles which underlie good character in life.

These are the great questions which lie interwoven in the new and comprehensive science of civics. It is not the purpose of the Institute of Civics to formulate methods, to present text-books, or to come before the schools and the people of this country with certain ideas already in form which they ask them to accept. We ask you to solve these problems, or at least to give them your most earnest attention. One of the speakers to-night has referred to that army of 320,000 teachers in our land, that great force for the building up of society. May I not remind you that in addition to the numbers that are represented in the teaching service of the country there are others, officers, superintendents, supervisors, trustees of schools, in sufficient number to swell the number in the service of the public schools to 500,000.

The civil service connected with the machinery of government in all the States of the Union scarcely equals or exceeds the number of those who are acting as the agents of our civil service in connection with our system of public schools, a grand and noble power, a mighty force. Let us take care to direct it so that it shall be what it ought to be.

Superintendent W. H. ANDERSON, of Wheeling, W. Va., spoke briefly in favor of a tenure of office for teachers.

Mr. J. D. HAILE, of Grundy Center, Iowa, approved of a tenure of office that should depend upon the will of an intelligent community. People in his part of the country sometimes wanted to have school officers *appointed* instead of being elected. For his part he was willing to trust the people, not only with the civil service of the Government, but especially with the training of the youth, and he uttered his protest against

any effort to teach the youth that they should prepare in the public schools for anything else than the exercise of the rights and duties of intelligent citizenship.

Dr. MARBLE had no sympathy with those people, whether they are eminent school superintendents or others, who are so ready to decry our political and educational systems.

Some months ago in Boston, one of the most moral places on the earth, a very prominent official, a trusted member of the church, a superintendent of a Sunday school, perhaps even a member of the board of education, ran away with a large sum of money belonging to various widows and orphans. The newspapers began to talk about the horrible corruption in the community; here was an eminent and trusted man who had gone astray, and everything and everybody was going to the dogs. A minister preached on that subject the next Sunday and said that he had known more than five hundred officials who had been trusted and who had *not* gone astray, from which he drew the conclusion that after all there were some pretty good men left in spite of the recent defaulter. Now and then a franchise for a railway is said to be sold improperly, and the officers "bag the boodle," and are afterwards themselves "bagged" by an outraged community. That does not happen all the time or everywhere. There are hundreds of cities where nothing of the kind has ever taken place. Corrupt "rings" and some corrupt men exist in a few places, but they are exceptions; he believed there were in the audience before him a good many men with whom it would be perfectly safe to leave his pocket-book. Now the schools—what a horrible state of things there is in the schools—and yet parents send their children to these schools, and we do not hear them in large numbers crying out against them. When the question is discussed as it has been here, the impression goes all over the country that the system of schools is the most faulty that has ever been devised; its defects are often obvious enough; but after all the public system is a good system. He disliked this everlasting outcry against evils, this constant overlooking the vastly preponderating amount of good.

At the conclusion of Mr. Marble's remarks, at 9.45 o'clock p. m., the convention adjourned.

FOURTH SESSION.

The convention re-assembled at half past 9 o'clock, Wednesday, March 16, 1887.

Dr. A. P. MARBLE, superintendent of schools in Worcester, Mass., opened the day with the following paper:

POWERS AND DUTIES OF SCHOOL OFFICERS AND TEACHERS, ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE.

School officers are the agents or representatives of the public, who constitute the proprietors in the organization and control of public schools. They are of various grades, with duties more or less extensive,

as district, township, borough, or city, county, and State; and they are variously named, as boards of directors, boards of control, trustees, school committee, board of education. They sometimes act as a body, and sometimes through an agent, who is their executive officer, and an educational expert as the superintendent. These school officers exercise the functions of the trustees of an incorporated school or the proprietors of the private school.

Teachers are those who administer the school; they have the immediate control of the pupils, and attend to their instruction and discipline. Teachers are also classified as principal and subordinate. In such cases the general duties of the teacher are distributed, and some of the powers and duties of the subordinate teacher are exercised under the direction of the principal. Certain of the duties which in a general way belong to the office of teacher are, under the public school system, assigned to the school officer. The superintendent, for example, may be authorized to direct, in a general way, the methods of teaching, and he may, in borough or city schools, assist in the discipline. The principal teacher, on the other hand, may be intrusted with certain powers of the school officer, acting as the agent of the committee, directors, or trustees; for example, he may select and appoint his subordinate teachers; but the twofold character in which individuals in certain phases of the school system may act need not confuse the function of the teacher with them belonging partly to the school officer; and this discussion will proceed as if these functions are always exercised by different individuals.

In order to a clear understanding of the powers and duties belonging under any system to school officers and teachers, respectively, it is necessary to examine the question historically.

Schools are very ancient institutions. The teacher has come down to us from very early times. Public schools on the other hand are a modern invention, comparatively, and the school officer is a new creation, made necessary by the new relation of the public to the schools and to education generally. In considering the powers and duties of the teacher, therefore, we must find from tradition what the status of the teacher is. The powers and duties of the school officer are defined in specific terms in the statutes. There is the same distinction between the two as between the common law and the code as I understand it; the same as between the constitution of England, which is known through a body of precedents, and the Constitution of this country, which is a written document; the same distinction which is found between the officers of an ancient monarchy, who find their powers in long established usage, and the officers of a new republic, where the duty of each officer is specifically defined by law. My idea of the relation between the teacher and the school officer may be still further illustrated by the authority of the State as compared with the National Government. The State is a sovereignty; but in entering the Federal

Government and becoming a part of one great nation, the State has surrendered a specific part of that general and undefined power called sovereignty. If we inquire what are the powers of the Federal Government, we must seek them in the Constitution; if we seek to know what a State may do we find nothing definite; everything which a sovereign power may do belongs to the State to do, except what has been surrendered in the national Constitution. In like manner the powers and duties of the teacher in the public schools include everything which is inherent in the office of teacher, in the broad understanding of that term which we have from tradition; and the exceptions to this broad and general authority of the teacher are found in the specific laws, and what belongs to them by implication, which prescribe certain powers and duties to the school officers. The modern public school teacher is the traditional teacher shorn of certain functions which have been by specific laws imposed upon the school officer. We find the authority and duty of the teacher by subtraction, by eliminating from the general notion of what belongs to the teacher all that has been assigned to the school officer. We find the authority and duty of the school officer, on the other hand, by addition—by augmenting the general notion of what belongs to the proprietors or the founders of a school (like the chartered schools of England for example), by the specific duties assigned to these officers from time to time in the law.

Traditionally, then, the teacher stands in the place of the parent for all the broad purposes of education. Whatever belongs to the parent belongs to him in this regard, and the parent's rights and duties are inferior to no earthly power. Parents are responsible for their children, and their authority is commensurate with their duty. Under the Roman law the lives even of children were in the hands of parents. Under our modern laws these extremes of parental authority have been abridged, but parents may still exercise all reasonable control over their children. For the purposes of the school, and while in school, the teacher assumes all these broad powers of the parent. In very early times the teacher instructed and guided those who resorted to him voluntarily, attracted by the power of his wisdom. Such was Socrates and Plato and Aristotle. Mediæval schools founded by charitable donations, established by those who had charge of the foundations and who selected the teachers, were administered by the teachers. The pupils were intrusted to them by the parents who delegated their authority to those teachers. So it was in the chartered schools of England. Magister, the master, is a term which implies authority. In those schools even to this day the student is in the hands of the master or teacher, whose authority is as unlimited as that of the parents. The right to inflict corporal punishment and every other reasonable right belongs to the teacher and is intrusted to him by the parent.

This traditional notion of the teacher's powers and duties is recognized in the school laws of every State. In these laws the powers and duties of the teacher, and what a school is, are assumed to be known.

No specific duties are assigned to the teacher except the implied duty of teaching a good school. There is a singular absence of all law on the subject. The only duties specifically assigned to the teacher are of a merely formal character, such as having a license or certificate of qualification to teach, and making out and certifying certain school statistics. All the functions belonging to the teacher are left to be inferred from the traditional notion of what a teacher is, and from the purposes of the school, which are the right nurture and training of youth. The only exception to the above—the only specific duty of teachers in the laws—relates to moral culture. It is expressed in the statutes of Massachusetts as follows: “It shall be the duty of all instructors of youth to exert their best endeavors to impress on the minds of children and youth committed to their care and instruction the principles of piety and justice, and a sacred regard to truth, love of their country, humanity, and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry, and frugality, chastity, moderation, temperance, and those other virtues which are the ornaments of human society and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded; and it shall be the duty of such instructors to endeavor to lead their pupils, as their ages and capacities will admit, into a clear understanding of the tendency of the above mentioned virtues, to preserve and perfect a republican constitution and secure the blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their future happiness, and also to point out to them the evil tendencies of the opposite ones.” In spirit, though not in terms, the laws of many, if not most, of the other States contain the same.

By tradition, then, confirmed by this single statute, the education of children is intrusted to the teacher by the parents, and all the powers of the parents and all the authority necessary to this great end are conferred upon the teacher. This authority is amplified by numerous decisions of the courts. I will refer to a few. The teacher may inflict reasonable corporal punishment except when forbidden by special law; he may punish for offenses committed out of school which directly interfere with the school (*Lander v. Seaver*, 32 Va., 114); he may insist that a pupil shall submit to the authority of the school before resuming his place in school, even against the school officer who waives such submission (*Scott v. School District*, 46 Va., 452); he may suspend a pupil for disorderly conduct; the school house is his castle, and he may insist upon the same control over all persons who enter which a man may exercise in his own house (*Stevens v. Fassett*, 27 Maine, 266).

The teacher is the school. The best service to education consists in appointing the best teachers. School officers have no higher duty than this. Teachers are employed for a purpose “vastly great.” They must teach the science of health with all the learning, but without the pay, of the doctor; they must inculcate the principles of morality with all the impressive sincerity, but without the sectarianism of the minister; they must be altogether more patient and discreet than parents, and

more even-tempered than God Almighty himself, for He was "wroth" when He punished the wicked, whereas if a teacher punishes in anger he is guilty of an assault and battery; they must invent schemes to invert human nature, and make every good thing and thought enticing and every bad thing and thought abominably disgusting, especially to the "desperately wicked," who have no good in them; they must tenderly moderate the zeal of the too ambitious and inspire the dullest blockhead with a manly thirst for fame and knowledge; the incorrigibly uncouth and vicious they must endow with the tastes, instincts, and manners of the refined and virtuous. And, in short, they must turn all from the thousand paths that lead to indolence, ignorance, and folly, and prepare them to find infallibly all the ways of pleasantness and all the paths of peace. These are the high purposes for which teachers are employed; and it would be a shame and a reproach to require so much of them, and at the same time tie their hands by withholding from them the power which is indispensable to their success. The law is not so unreasonable—for with any well-defined duty the law gives an incontestable right to all the power necessary for the performance of that duty. (From *Pedagogical Law*, III, or case of *Newman v. Bennett*, 2 Chitt., 195.)

Let us now inquire to what extent all this has been modified by the powers and duties of school officers, who are created and made necessary by our system of public schools. In the earliest colonial days the necessity for universal education was recognized. In 1636 the colony of Massachusetts Bay appropriated £400 to found a university, in order that learning "may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers in church and state." The act of 1642 enjoined upon the municipal authorities the duty of making education universal, but not necessarily free. In 1647 another law was passed, making the support of public schools compulsory and education universal and free. As this was the first law of the kind ever passed by any community of persons or by any State, Massachusetts may claim the honor of having originated the free public school. The school law of 1826 (Massachusetts) was the first to require towns to elect school committees. (Secretary Dickinson in *School Law*, 1883.)

Previous to this law of 1826 the public schools were supported by the towns, and the teachers were appointed by the selectmen or a set of officers chosen primarily for another purpose. The school officers, as they now exist, have developed from this law and from similar laws in the several States of the Union. This system has not grown up in any one State or in the several States, or from thirty-eight individual and separate counties; but each State has adopted or improved upon the laws and customs of the other States. The American system is not national in the sense that it is promoted and conducted by the General Government, but it exists nevertheless; and it may be shown by a careful study of the various State laws respecting education, and

the customs under them, that the resemblances are far more numerous than the dissimilarity.

Since education is recognized as a necessity, and it is made a public duty in all the States, the teacher becomes an agent of the State. He stands not only in place of the parent, but he represents the State in securing this universal education.

The public, moreover, assumes the position of proprietor of the schools, and hence there must be agents or representatives of the public who take the place of trustees in an incorporated school to select the teachers and to make rules and regulations for the schools. The public, including all parents, by its agents, the school officers, organizes the school and appoints the teachers, and by the laws the public compels the attendance of the children at school. Parents, then, as a part of the body politic, are the proprietors of the school and act through their agents; and as parents merely, they surrender their parental functions for the purposes of the school to the teachers so appointed. The school officers, however, so selected, have a power and authority under the laws, the most arbitrary and complete known to our Constitution. The school is an institution of the State for the benefit of the State, and not merely for the individual pupil, though this benefit is attained of necessity through securing the welfare of the individual pupil.

The powers and duties of school officers are direct and immediate as in the case of district trustees or committees, or they are more general and remote as in the case of State boards of education, State superintendents of public instruction, &c. Among these officers there are various ranks. The execution of the school law is in some States intrusted to the subordinate or more immediate school officers who are only partially under the control of the superior officers, and in other States these subordinate officers are controlled in their action by those above them. For example, in Massachusetts the local school committee have the entire management of the schools of their locality, including the examination, the certificating, and the appointment of their teachers. In Pennsylvania the trustees of a district can appoint no teacher who has not the certificate of the county superintendent. In most cases, I believe, the more general and remote school officers may exert a powerful influence upon the schools through the official inspection which they have the power to make, and through the statistics which they may require, that will show the necessity for new laws and secure their enactment. Through the distribution of funds to the several districts that comply with the requirements, these officers may also powerfully affect the schools.

Under various names, and with duties variously subdivided, school officers have these powers and others, perhaps, for I do not propose to enumerate them all.

They may determine what schools are needed, how many and what kind of houses are necessary, and in some States they may assess the

taxes and raise the funds to build them or to support the schools. They appoint and contract with the teachers. They decide what pupils shall be admitted to a school. They fix the course of study in the schools, and when the schools are graded they fix the attainments required for each grade. They select the school-books to be used in each grade. They may dismiss a teacher for any cause satisfactory to themselves. They may exclude any pupil from school whenever they judge his attendance to be injurious to the school or no longer useful to himself.

This authority of school officers who are the officers of the State may overrule the wishes of parents. A parent may desire his child to pursue a study not in the curriculum fixed upon, or he may desire the child to omit one or more of the studies included. He can insist upon neither as a right, though a wise administration of the schools would make all possible allowance for the parent's wishes.

The decision in the celebrated Wisconsin case, where a man insisted upon his child's omitting the study of geography, would, if applied broadly (which the judge may not have intended), overthrow the power of the constituted authority to fix upon any curriculum, and leave the whole school system, not in the hands of the majority, but at the mercy of any insignificant minority. (*Morrow v. Wood*, 35 Wis., 59.) They may insist upon punctuality and regularity of attendance. It has been held by one court that the only cause for which the committee may expel a pupil is incorrigible misconduct, but the weight of the decisions is in form of a broader discretion in school officers, and if it were not, if pupils might be absent or tardy as often as they please without fear of expulsion, the committee could still have the right to assign all such irregular pupils to a school by themselves, and thus practically to exclude them from the school they had previously pretended to attend. These powers specifically conferred upon school officers, it will be seen, abridge the ancient prerogatives of the teacher.

The relative powers and duties of school officers and teachers will now be briefly considered:

(1) The officers having the power to appoint and dismiss teachers are able to control the school and give it the character which they prefer, for they can select teachers in sympathy with their own views, and they can dismiss those who will not act in harmony with those views.

(2) The power of inspecting and examining a school gives the school officer the right to act as teacher for the time being. In the examination he may listen while the teacher conducts the exercise, or he may conduct it himself and require the teacher to listen, and while performing this duty he is clothed with all the authority of the teacher, and he may apply correction and discipline while acting in this capacity. (*Peck v. Smith*, 41 Conn., 442.) On this point we have also the opinion of one of the most eminent educational writers, Horace Mann:

During the period of visitation the committee have the entire control of the school. For the time being it is their school and the teacher is their servant. They may de-

cide what classes shall be called upon to perform exercises and in what studies. They may direct the teacher to conduct the examination or may conduct it wholly themselves, or they may combine both methods. In fine, they may dismiss the teacher for the hour and pursue the examination in his absence. Should any scholar misbehave himself or prove refractory or contumacious to the committee while they are engaged in examining the school, it is presumed they have an authority to suspend, to expel, or to punish on the spot, in the same way that the teacher may do in case of like misconduct committed against himself. (10th Reps., p. 183.)

(3) Fixing the course of study carries with it the power to decide, to a very large extent, the methods of teaching. In a certain grade, which corresponds to a certain year of school, and which is designed to prepare pupils for the studies of the following year, certain studies must be taught in general in a definite way; and the power which organizes the school must be able to insist that this particular work shall be done by the teacher. But it would be exceedingly unwise to exercise such a power except in a general way. To destroy the individuality of the teacher by minute and detailed directions is to hinder him and injure the school.

(4) The selection of school-books also enables school officers to give tone to the school and color to the teaching. Suppose, for example, that a text-book is selected in political economy which strongly advocates protection because the school officers favor that view; and suppose the teacher is a strong believer in free trade, so much so that he regards protection as a moral wrong, a kind of robbery of the many to enrich a monopoly. He cannot conscientiously follow the teaching of the school-book provided for his class; he must then refute the teaching of the book, and thus in effect violate the regulations of the school, for which he would be likely to be discharged; or else he must do violence to his conscience, commit what he regards as a wrong, in order to retain his place; and in this case he would prove himself unfit to be a teacher.

Here comes up the question, How far has a public school the moral right to give instruction in any branch of study involving questions upon which the community is not agreed? Such questions may arise in the teaching of zoology, where, for example, the doctrine of evolution may point to an origin of man not in accordance with the commonly accepted understanding of Scripture; and in the teaching of English history the question may arise whether Mary Stuart was a murderess or a saint, whether Elizabeth was a most wise, patriotic, and virtuous sovereign or a malignant and vindictive persecutor and curse. To exclude all such subjects as may give rise to differences of opinion is to deny the right of the public schools to conduct the higher education, and even the secondary, and thus practically to debar a large portion of the community from the privileges of this higher training. To enforce through the text-books and the teachers the teaching of opinions held by the majority of a community as represented by the school officers is a kind of oppression of the minority.

The object of schools is education, culture, and not the propagation of any one set of opinions, the development of the powers and not storing pupils' minds with the opinions and thoughts of older people. The true course on such questions is, then, not to exclude the studies, and not to control the teaching of them in any particular channel; it is rather the duty of the officers and of the teacher to present the opposite views, and to lead these advanced pupils to reason themselves upon the question at issue, leaving their conclusions as much as possible to their own natural judgment later in life. In this way only can the honesty and the fairness of the teaching be justified when they come to maturity in the minds of the pupils.

(5) The authority to send pupils to any particular school involves the power of the officers to promote pupils who are not qualified. What is the teacher to do in case this happens? He can do nothing but submit and leave the officers who are guilty of a wrong to the inevitable retribution which overtakes all wrong-doing. In such a case the retribution will come from an awakened and outraged community, if there be a wrong. There may be cases where it is the best for all concerned to advance a pupil to the higher grade though he is not fully prepared.

(6) May a teacher punish a pupil or require of him, with the approval of the committee, any duty which the parent has expressly forbidden? The answer to this question appears when we consider what the school is for. It is not alone for the individual pupil but for the community, for the good of the whole. Now, if one parent may interpose his wishes and his opinions with authority another may do the same. This would remove the direction and control of the school from the regularly constituted authorities, the officers elected by the majority and the teacher whom they appoint, and vest the real control in individual caprice. The right to dictate does not rest with the parent. If he is dissatisfied his remedy is to secure a new set of officers.

(7) But the more arbitrary the authority with which the highest success of a system of public schools makes it necessary to invest school officers, the more discreetly this authority should be exercised lest it become oppression, and so defeat its own aim. It is a great thing for a parent to surrender into the hands of a teacher so much of his own authority and control over his children as he must in order to the maintenance of an effective system of public schools; and when, by the laws, the support of the schools becomes a public tax, and either attendance upon them or else the additional cost of private schools is made compulsory, an extreme limit has been reached in the curtailment of a parent's natural rights. Hence, so far as it may be done without positive injury to the school, the preference of individual parents ought to be respected and granted.

CONCLUSION.

These extensive powers and the corresponding duties in conducting public school education are vested in school officers and teachers by the

laws and from the necessities of the case, since education is a public concern under our republican institutions and indispensable under our form of Government. It will be noticed that the principle of local control is everywhere recognized. This is the wisest and most beneficent feature of the system. The county and State boards of control are chiefly useful in stimulating this local interest; and whatever the authority and the duty of the teacher or the school officer, of whatever rank, that authority is best exerted and that duty is best performed when it secures and works with an intelligent active interest in the community, the parents, and the pupils; and without this co-operation all other agencies are comparatively powerless. Paul may plant and Apollos may water; from that source comes the increase.

Paul is State assistance *ad libitum*; Apollos is national aid *ad nauseam*; the Divine Spirit which gives life and growth must be found in the local interest.

This is not a grace-of-God Government, with all power and wisdom inherent in hereditary rules. Neither is it an aristocracy, in which the best rule. In a democracy like ours foolish councils will sometimes prevail, but the exercise of the folly works its own cure. The people get sick of misrule after a while, and they rise in their might and reform or revolutionize—and we have no grace-of-God system of education. It is what the people make it. There are no hereditary school officers or teachers endowed with all wisdom. Power does not proceed from above downwards in education, as it does not in our Government. If teachers buy their places, and school trustees sell out, as has been said here, the best cure for a community, where that is possible, is to let it go on—the more of it and the ranker the better—and the sooner the evil will be cured.

Educational references and great teachers, inspired with a noble ambition to really improve the schools, arise from time to time. But they are not like a great central dynamo, to send the current to the little arcs or incandescent ribbons in every room. They may be gasometers. They rather resemble the sunlight whose beams start into life the seeds long slumbering in the earth. Those seeds are the individual local interests.

The President called upon Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, of Cleveland, Ohio, to begin the discussion of Dr. Marble's paper.

DR. HINSDALE: Mr. President, I wish to say in the beginning that I have listened with interest and satisfaction to this strong and clear presentation of the subject that Superintendent Marble has given. I do not know what may have been the experience of others who have listened, but the subject has been so brought to my own mind that I have obtained views and glimpses of it from new angles and from unfamiliar points of observation.

I shall not, if you please, wander very far from the lines that have been drawn in the paper in the remarks I am to make, but shall call at-

tention to two or three things that have been presented, largely for the purpose of emphasizing them and their applications, and partially, also, for the purpose of extending them in one or two particulars. It seems to me that the most suggestive and fruitful thought presented in this paper, so far as its consequences and applications are concerned, is the thought that since the mediæval times there has been a process of differentiation going on, educationally speaking, the result of which has been to strip the teacher or educator of certain powers and rights and duties which at one time belonged to him, and to give these to a new educational functionary, so to speak, who represents the State, the public interest, and the public authority. I think there can be no question as to the soundness of this position. I should say, generally speaking, that, as compared to those who, in mediæval times represented that business side of affairs, the teacher is relatively less than he was, and that those who represent the business side of affairs, as compared to the teacher, are more than they were. I think there can be no doubt as to the fact that such a process of differentiation has been going forward.

Our attention was also called to the fact, which seems to be an important one, that whereas the duties and powers of school officers, who represent the public, are defined in statutes, in laws, and in law books, the powers and duties of teachers for the most part are not defined in the statutes or in the laws. They come down to us from the past by tradition, and they rest to-day very largely upon a basis of usage and of custom all over the land. I suppose it is so all over the world, or in civilization at all events, meaning by that expression the European civilized world. It occurs to me that that fact is a very much more important one than it is possible for some of us to suppose. I take it to be a fact. Every one who has read the school laws of the various States knows that very little indeed is said in the laws about teachers, about the teaching corporation, so to speak; whereas the powers and duties of the managing corporation are very definitely written out in the statutes. The way of putting that seemed to me very happy when Mr. Marble said that whereas the duties of school officers rest upon a basis of positive law, the duties and powers of teachers are to be drawn or inferred from what in a large and general sense we might call a sort of "educational common law." I take it that this is a very fortunate circumstance. There is a marked difference between the duties and powers of school officers and teachers. It is a vastly easier thing to define the duties of school officers than it is to define the duties of teachers. I know, as a matter of course, that boards of education go far beyond the Legislature in ordering that this thing shall be done and that that shall not be done, but their ordinances lie largely in the field of things that are formal in their nature and do not reach to the heart and character of teachers and of education. I take it that it would not only be a difficult thing, but an impossible thing, to sum it all up and to define in the statutes what teachers are to do in the carrying forward of schools, and

I think we have reason to congratulate ourselves that the law makers have permitted themselves to leave that part of the work, considered as a whole, alone, and have not attempted to define or limit the duties and powers of teachers to any considerable or appreciable extent. I think this is a fortunate circumstance, growing out of the very subject-matter, as compared with the subject-matter of the other branch of the discussion. I think there is another reason why it is fortunate that the matter is left in that shape, and that is this: I take it that it is far easier to change public opinion, public sentiment, far easier to change ideas and notions and sentiments and to give a new motive to what we may call "tradition," the educational common law, than it is to take the educational statutes and change them. I know it is sometimes an easier thing to change a statute than it is to change public sentiment, but I take it upon the whole that it is easier to go forward, to make progress, owing to the fact that the powers and duties of teachers rest upon a basis of common law—I take it that it is easier for us to go forward than it would be if we had all these things written out in an educational book of chronicles, so to speak, so that a great body of traditional law and of book legislation had to be affected and changed before particular things might be wrought out to our satisfaction.

There is another conclusion that follows from the generalization which has been presented in the paper, namely, since the powers and the duties of teachers repose for the most part upon a basis of common law, they will differ with the cultivation, with the intelligence, with the civilization, so to speak, of different communities, and the result is that the common law as respects these matters in one State, while it is to a great extent the law in another State, is not so throughout, and not only so, but the common educational law of one State, of one locality or section of the State, is not by any means what it is in another locality or section. To some extent this is probably a misfortune, but there is a great deal of reason, I take it, to be found for congratulation in the fact that it is so. Let me illustrate: In the State of Ohio the Legislature says that school boards shall choose all text-books, and from a legal standpoint superintendents and teachers are not recognized in this matter. From one point of view it is difficult to conceive of greater absurdity than this.

My understanding is that in the colleges of the country, governing and controlling boards of trustees and the like, never burden themselves with the text-book question. That is left for the faculty, and not only so, but it is practically left to the head of the teaching department to manage. Now, there are probably reasons, very grave and weighty reasons, why the Legislature ought not to give the teachers of a city or locality the power to choose their text-books. I am not going to enter upon this argument further than to express this opinion; but there comes up a question, the question how far shall teachers and superintendents be recognized in this matter? How much influence,

how much power shall they wield, not because they are endowed with the power by the statutes of a State or by the rules of a board of education, but because custom, usage, or tradition gives it to them?

There are boards of education that, although they are clothed with the power of settling this whole question out of hand, practically hand it over to the teaching board; and there are other boards of education that would regard it as an impertinence upon the part of a teacher or superintendent to deal with this matter. I might make a remark very similar to this with reference to the courses of study, although as a matter of course boards of education are more dependent upon instructors for courses of study than they are for books, whereas a course of education cannot be exactly measured off by any of the material standards.

Then there comes up the matter of the selection of teachers. The law of the State in which I live clothes the board of education, or in the subordinate districts it clothes the board of directors with full and absolute and exclusive power, so far as that matter is concerned. There is not a superintendent in the State who by express law is clothed with power in this matter.

I do not know that there is a superintendent in the State who is clothed with power so far as the rules of the committee or board are concerned. If we go behind the law for the purpose of inquiring into the usage, for the purpose of inquiring into the traditions, we find that they are different in different places, as naturally would be the case. Whereas in some places the executive head of a system is listened to and appealed to, there are other places in which, if the superintendent were in any way to express his opinion with regard to the employment of a teacher, it would be regarded as a gross intrusion upon his part into a matter which did not concern him and with which he had no business.

At this point Dr. Hinsdale's time expired.

Superintendent O. E. LATHAM, Danville, Ill.: *Ladies and Gentlemen:* I think the views of this convention have been sufficiently presented, and I would therefore desire to call your attention to one of the duties of teachers. I take it as granted that the object of a teacher is to develop brain power, or it may be stated in a broader way, to develop character. Character includes moral development and brain power. A merely good man is not our ideal; nor is a merely able man our ideal. School work, then, implies the development of both these characteristics. I want to call your attention to a peculiar duty which has been overlooked for some years, and the tendency is to continue to overlook it. Suppose you take a child in your arms and go out for a stroll. Soon you see its little finger pointing, and you look up and you finally interpret the thought that the child has by some such expression as this: "That is a bird." In a moment you see another motion, and you follow it, and interpret the thought of the child again, "The bird flew." Now, notice

that the child had the thought. You only tried to put that thought into symbols for him.

Take another illustration: You are playing with the child on the floor; you roll an apple to him; he rolls it back to you, and you roll it to him again; he is satisfied with this play. Then you take out your knife and cut the apple; he looks a little astonished; he takes up both pieces, puts them together, and you see a pleased expression pass over his face. You cut the apple again; he gets all the pieces in his hands, and is satisfied. If, now, you take one of these pieces away from him, the child begins to cry. How are you going to interpret the thought in his mind? Undoubtedly he may have discovered that the whole apple is equal to the sum of all its parts, but if you attempt to put that proposition abstractly in words you bewilder him. A thought is very simple in itself, but the putting of that thought into word-symbols is difficult. A simple sentence of ten words may express a thought; but that thought is no more difficult to master than each one of these symbols. It is as hard for a child to master one word as it is the thought itself. So that in mastering a thought we have this: The thought itself is one thing; if on an average there are ten words to a thought, then there are ten other things to master, so that there are eleven essential things in a thought and its expression. I have also noticed that in mastering ten words there are seventy actual difficulties of pronunciation and spelling; so that the thought is one difficulty, the ten individual words make ten more, the seven difficulties to each word make seventy more, so that eighty-one difficulties are encountered in mastering one sentence.

Now, notice that in our system of mastering *thought* seventy of these difficulties are useless; they can be done away with, so that on that estimate seven-eighths of our time is completely wasted if the object be to develop thought. I want the general body of school teachers, who feel the necessity of improving and advancing school-work in every possible way, to notice this one phase of the work that we have slighted for years past. Now, we have the organization, we have this meeting, and will have the national meeting at Chicago, all competent to deal with this question. The moment you have accomplished this you can give seven more parts of time to the developing of the brain powers of our boys and girls. The difficulties are so very great that some despair of ever accomplishing it. When we speak of the powers and duties of teachers, relative and absolute, I think there is no duty that stands in any comparison to the duty of reducing the difficulty of acquiring the capacity to think.

Superintendent J. M. GREEN, superintendent of schools, Long Branch, N. J., then spoke as follows:

My conception of the question before us has been different from that which has been stated by those who have preceded me. I have been greatly instructed, indeed, by the basis that has been shown for the powers that are possessed by teachers and officers and from the way

in which they have been shaped by statute laws, but I did not understand that our subject to-day was so much the tracing of this process as the consideration of what shall be done at this time in the administration of the laws and the relations actually existing between officers and teachers. There are some questions which are before every community at the present time that I thought, perhaps, would come profitably to our attention at this time. For instance, there are boards of education which assume and exercise the power of arranging a course of study, so that under that course of study the teacher and the superintendent are merely servants, exercising no individuality. There is a responsibility for the development and education of the child, but that responsibility is not placed upon the superintendent or the teacher, but is understood to be with the board. I think we ought to discuss the question whether that power should be exercised by the board or by the superintendent.

Again, there are systems of education in parts of our country where the superintendent definitely marks out the work for each particular time in each and every school room; he looks after the whole system in detail so closely that there is nothing left for the individuality of the teacher. Now, if the teacher is not called upon to develop individuality, what should he do in fulfilling the purpose of the school?

It is on these lines that I have been thinking. I wish to say that I am deeply indebted to those who have preceded me for showing so clearly how much of error there is still left, and it certainly seems to me that there is still enough power to arrange things so that they should be just as they ought to be.

Mr. GREEN then read the following paper:

THE POWERS AND DUTIES OF OFFICERS AND TEACHERS, ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE.

Our subject is classified under two heads, officers and teachers.

With entire loyalty to the spirit of this discussion, I would like to classify it under three heads—trustees, superintendents, and teachers.

The official guardians of our schools have been given various titles, as school boards, boards of education, school commissioners, &c., to suit different localities and different tastes; but for the purpose of this occasion I prefer the term trustee because of its significance.

I have placed the superintendent in a class by himself, as his office seems to me in nature distinct from that of either trustee or teacher.

The term trustee, as indicated above, is significant. The people in their entirety cannot, in the nature of things, be the executive guardians of their schools, but must delegate this function to chosen representatives in trust.

This trust is twofold in its nature, financial and educational.

Financial in that it calls for the judicious application of the money raised for the support of the schools and the proper preservation of the school property.

Educational in that it calls for such an organization of the school system as will best accomplish the educational purpose of the community. In the application of the school money the duties of the trustees should be absolute.

Chosen as they are, or should be, by the votes of the people and occupying a representative position, they are held directly responsible for the money and may safely be regarded as possessed of at least the most practicable judgment in its expenditure.

In the general organization of the educational system the powers of the trustees should also be absolute.

By such general organization is meant the mapping out or planning what the system shall be, as, for instance, it shall consist of a superintendent, with or without certain assistants, with certain duties and prerogatives, also principals of each of the various schools, heads of departments, the manner of choosing these officials, a system of gradation in the schools consisting of primary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools, &c., including their location and relation.

In addition to the mapping out of this general plan the board of trustees must sit in judgment on its execution as to general results, for should it fail the board is responsible for its change.

I wish to emphasize the statement that this judgment should be passed on the general results of the system rather than on technical results based upon examinations or other data. I should not favor examinations conducted by school boards or committees, as I should not favor on the part of any one the assumption of a duty the full import of which he did not understand.

It may also be considered the absolute duty of the board of trustees to select a superintendent, as it constitutes the only power in the district higher than he, and the power that is responsible for the general results of his work.

It is also the prerogative of the board to sit as the high court of appeal before which shall come all questions not satisfactorily settled by those to whom their settlement has been delegated.

With the powers and duties thus briefly outlined it seems to me the absolute functions of the trustees close.

The superintendent of schools should be a professional educator, and one who will command the respect of those over whom he is given charge by reason of his peculiar fitness for his position and not by reason of any foreign attainments, political or otherwise.

He is to superintend the work of the schools, not from general results, as in case of the board, but from a professional standpoint. The people may see the results of the physician's practice in the healing of the sick, but the physician must understand how best to obtain those results. Likewise are related the superintendent and the board.

It is one of the absolute duties of the superintendent to arrange a course of study for the schools and to so adapt it and apportion it as

shall be best suited both to the intellectual development and present needs of the pupils.

I am well aware that this duty is, and perhaps will be, curtailed by many boards, believing, as they do, that it would be giving the superintendent too great power.

The question, however, comes at once whether an unprofessional board shall require the best results of a professional man, or whether it shall simply require the best results under certain unprofessionally prescribed conditions.

Imagine a patient going to a distinguished physician, desirous of being cured of an ailment, but with this one condition, that the medicine must be pleasant to the taste. Not less inconsistent is it to require the best results of the superintendent while limiting the means of acquiring those results.

It is also the absolute duty of the superintendent to attend to the working out of this course of study both in its regulative and intellectual conditions. This attendance may be more or less in detail on the part of the superintendent, in proportion to the size of his field of labor. On what plan this attendance should be conducted should be entirely at the discretion of the superintendent.

It is also the duty of the superintendent to ascertain the efficiency of all who are under his charge, to thoroughly inform himself on all matters in connection with his work, to convene his teachers and give general direction to the work by making plain the spirit and purpose of the educational system.

It should also be the prerogative of the superintendent to sit in judgment on such questions as cannot be finally decided by those under him. He should be the supreme court from which the board is the court of appeal.

Such, it seems to me, are the absolute duties and powers of the superintendent.

It is the absolute duty of the teacher to maintain discipline in her room, and instruct the pupils in the branches, or parts of branches set apart for her for a given time.

This time should have reference simply to harmony in the promotion of the grades. How much should be given for any one lesson, or in what manner the subject should be presented, should be left to the teacher, that his individuality may be preserved.

It is the duty of the teacher to thoroughly study the child.

He is the master mechanic of the destiny of the souls, and unless he fully understand the laws and nature of the subject before him he surely will go astray.

Nor can instinct be relied on for the accomplishment of this work. That quality is left to the lower orders of animals. Man is a rational being and depends for his success on the culture and accuracy of his reasoning powers.

It is the duty of the teacher to thoroughly familiarize himself with the spirit and purpose of the system under which he is engaged, and to work for its promotion.

There is called for no slavish allegiance, but we are called upon to build each other up, ever remembering that Hannibal learned well the art of good soldiery before he permitted himself to accept the office of general.

It remains to notice the relative duties of the respective parties under discussion.

There is one duty paramount in importance—the selection of teachers.

I have hesitated whether to make it absolute or relative, but decided finally to make it relative; the relation to exist between the superintendent and a committee chosen with great care from the board.

But I would fain have the relationship between these parties to be that of a respected father to dutiful children, the committee being the latter.

So necessary to the working out of any good system is the assistance of thoroughly competent teachers who are entirely familiar with the system, in complete sympathy with it, and actuated by no other motive than its promotion, that their selection cannot be too carefully guarded.

In this selection the judgment of the superintendent should have great weight, and this judgment should be based entirely on the qualifications of the teacher for the position, ignoring entirely all minor considerations, such as place, residence, political obligations, &c.

There is, I am sorry to observe, a tendency in many localities to make place of residence a qualification in the teacher, but it is not more fitting to this occupation than to trade or any other occupation.

Imagine a city that would not accept immigrants in any occupation. Where the responsibility is the power should be, is a principle that is coming more and more to be recognized, and that its realization may be hastened should be the devout wish of us all.

There should exist between the board and superintendent the co-operative principle of mutual counsel, that they may together labor for the common cause.

The superintendent should be next to the board in counsel and the one through whom all official communications from the teachers should reach the board, excepting in cases of appeal.

Between the superintendent and the teachers there should exist a mutual relationship.

He is not the boss and they the servants. He is the director and friend.

Every principle of education demands that between the superintendent and teacher there should exist the relation of man to man, that while full respect should be accorded his position the feeling towards him should be such that in his presence every feature of the work should be unreservedly laid bare.

Let the duties and relations thus feebly indicated be realized in their complete sense, and I am persuaded our school systems and our education would step forward with rapid pace.

Nor should it be considered that, by an arrangement on the general plan indicated in this discussion, any power is sacrificed or compromise suffered.

Many of our boards of trustees, jealous of their prerogatives and their patronage, curtail the powers of their superintendents and teachers.

But in this position they fail to discern the true preservation of prerogative, while they weaken executive force in their system.

The Department at Washington defines the purpose of the war and furnishes the provisions; the general in the field calls for the supplies and furnishes the plan of action; the soldiers respond and fight the battle.

Thus are our arms crowned with victory and our purposes accomplished.

In a somewhat similar manner may our educational triumphs be achieved.

Prof. W. E. SHELDON, Boston, Mass.: The duties of school officers are very clearly defined in the laws of the States under which they are appointed. Those duties, it seems to me, need to have some consideration. I would not like to say in this presence, where so many superintendents are gathered, that the school officers of this country are not always the wisest men in the world. I would not like to say that they have always, with a sense of responsibility and duty and privilege, earnestly and heartily performed all the duties incumbent upon their positions. There are in the country, unquestionably, many faithful, intelligent, and conscientious school officers and school committees and boards of education, but I am inclined to think that very largely the duties of school officers are performed with a perfunctory reference to the position rather than with a hearty and sincere regard for what is required in the education of the youth of the land. Of one thing I am certain, that many school officers so magnify their positions as to place the teachers of the country in leading strings. Their regulations and restrictions are such as to destroy that manly independence and womanly power which belongs to a teacher. One of their important functions is to select good teachers. If they honestly discharge that duty in selecting those who are proper for the schools of the country, it seems to me that they should then allow the teachers the freedom that will enable them to discharge their duties wisely and well. In the older sections of this country, in New England, we have so many traditions, we are hedged in by so many considerations that look towards the ruling of teachers in the schools rather than to the guidance and encouragement and stimulation that belong to a good school officer to stimulate the teacher to do the very best work in accordance with the very best methods. That cannot be done in leading strings. I know

of many teachers in the good old Bay State that are trammelled by the regulations and directions of school boards, and my conception of the duty of school officers does not lead me to feel that it is their duty to do that which they know nothing about, and very few of them know anything really about how to manage and control a teacher or the children of the schools which they are supposed to oversee and supervise.

When you come to superintendents, their duties are to some extent both those of school boards and of teachers. The superintendents should be experts. They should know all the history of education, should know all about the relative merits and different methods of instruction, should be able to comprehend them, to know whether this idea or that idea should prevail. What superintendent here is able to say to-day how a child shall be taken from the home through the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth grades, on through the higher schools, and to decide exactly in what way the faculty of every child shall be developed to preserve in him the individual, to preserve the characteristics that tend most to make good men and good women of the children that are placed in his charge?

This educational question, from this standpoint of view, is one large enough for the greatest minds that ever dwelt upon the earth. Questions like this will need careful study, and the superintendent who conscientiously discharges his duty, taking upon himself the powers delegated to him by the boards of education, and at the same time coming right alongside the teacher with his warm heart and his enlarged views and his extended experience, ought to be the nearest and dearest friend to the whole American people; he ought to be a wise man who assumes this responsibility. This is my conception of the duty of the superintendent.

Now, one word about the teachers. The teachers of this country are not all professionally trained. They are not all in the work because of their yearning interest in the education of the young. Such teachers ought to stand before their children and ask themselves the questions: "Am I fitted for this work? What do my duties and responsibilities require in this responsible position?" These ought to be their questions in the morning, and their questions at night, their questions in reference to all that they do. They should almost try to forget, if possible, that at the end of the month they are to draw their salary, but they never will in this generation. A broad conception of the teacher's duty would be that they should work and serve and toil, because of the usefulness there is in their profession. It is very easy to utter words of this character; it is not so easy to practice them. After twenty-five years of experience, I am frank to say that I was not myself always able to sink my individuality, my personal interest in the cause, and yet I tried to have this broad and large view of the work. The relation which the superintendent and teacher hold to each other is so close that they ought to be such friends and such co-operators that they will consult in refer-

ence to every step which will promote the interests of the school. There are some men in the community who regard themselves as exceedingly wise on all of these great questions. Some of them are in the profession; some of them are not. Some of them have broad, liberal, and extended views of what the work of education should be, and others, I am sorry to say, I think are a little cranky; I have been called one of the latter sort, myself, claiming to be always eminently conservative, and yet I know that I have very positive notions about some things.

I know that when I am told that the youth of this land can be educated by the personal power and by personal influence in the first steps, and without any reference to the traditions of the past, or the books of the past, that all these shall be thrown aside, I am one of those who do not believe that this can be done.

I do not believe the people of this country can be carried by any teacher's hand straight to glory, without any personal effort.

I am one of those people who believe that everything can be done objectively. I do not believe that the philosophy of Herbert Spencer can be applied to every common difficulty; neither do I believe that the developing process of Froebel is adapted for all the parts of our school population. By taking a broad view of those ideas that pertain to methods of elementary culture, I believe we can and should pursue a course, as teachers and as superintendents, that will secure to the children the elements of individuality and strength of character that will, in the future, make good men and good women by preparing them for citizenship.

Col. F. W. PARKER, Normal Park, Ill.: In speaking about the salary question, I can only speak for Illinois, that we are always for getting our salaries there. Now, some of this talk we have had I do not understand, and I am seeking for light. When gentlemen tell me that we can lay aside all traditions and all use of books, and then educate the children, I do not believe it. We hear this idea over and over again, as gentlemen said last night, this idea that the public schools are all bad, and that the case is hopeless. Now, whoever proposed to lay aside the text-books? I have a little library at home which I read, especially the *American Teacher* and the *New England Journal of Education*. I would like to know who ever proposed to lay aside and not use the mighty wisdom of the past for the improvement of the children? I call that, with the profoundest respect, "thin talk."

Hon. W. N. BARRINGER, Newark, N. J.: I have taken considerable interest in this question, although I felt when I entered the hall that I did not have much interest in it. I rise simply to try, if possible, to find out some of the duties of school officers. The first duty I find belonging to me as superintendent of schools is to keep out of the way. I found that when I entered the school room in my dignity, clothed in my official garments, feeling my authority and the great consequences

that must follow at my wondrous wisdom, because I happened to hold the office—I found that when I entered the school with that feeling that I did not accomplish very much ; that after all the true place, the true duty of the supervising officer, is to keep as much as possible out of the way. The tendency to-day is to organize and to systematize and to multiply officers and supervising agencies, and everything is in leading strings.

Why, I have seen committees appointed in order to help the president of a board of education out of a dilemma as to what to do with the members of his board ; so that they manufactured committees, and when they looked around for something to do, the president smilingly said : “ Call a meeting, and then we can make something to do.” So they called a meeting to manufacture business, and after a little while we find out this, that teachers are tied and restricted until there is no instruction and cannot be. I think I have learned in the ten years that I have been trying to supervise my schools, that the greatest thing of all things for the teacher is liberty, freedom from restriction, freedom from this everlasting supervision that binds the thought and feeling of those who should be left at liberty to think and to act and to teach, and so I said to myself, as I left the school room : “ I will keep out of the way, but I will exalt the teacher, I will magnify the teacher, and I will give the teacher an opportunity to be an individual, and to teach individuality.” The great trouble to-day is that the world is governed *en masse*. You have got to get to the individual before you can do anything in the way of reform. You must reform the individual, and when you have reached the individual you will have put the leaven where it will leaven the whole lump. I do not mean any reflection upon anybody here when I say to those who have grown gray in the cause, Keep out of the way, exalt your teachers, give them freedom, and let every teacher feel that when he stands before thirty or forty pupils that they are thirty or forty individuals, and that he is an individual, and in so far as he can reach the individual heart and character of these children forming his school, just so far will he be able to perform his duty and no further.

The Hon. L. S. CORNELL, State superintendent of Colorado, briefly expressed his concurrence with the remarks of Mr. Barringer.

Hon. J. ORMOND WILSON then presented an invitation to the members of the department of superintendence from Mr. and Mrs. W. D. Cabell, No. 1214 Fourteenth street northwest, to take lunch with them in the afternoon, after the visit to the President, which invitation was accepted with thanks.

There being special arrangements for the afternoon, the president, after a short recess, again called the meeting to order.

FIFTH SESSION.

The president introduced Hon. E. E. HIGBEE, State superintendent of Pennsylvania, who read the following paper :

CITY AND COUNTY SUPERVISION.

We assume at the outset that the public schools in our counties and cities need supervision. Were all the teachers and boards of control professionally qualified and earnest in their work, even then the inter-relation of schools and grades, and the examination of candidates, and the selection of teachers for various positions would demand some supervising headship before there could be any proper general organization. But neither teachers nor comptrollers are perfect, and the need of supervision, from this fact, becomes more imperative.

The supervision of schools is twofold ; one part relating to the more external matters of school-work, and the other to the internal. This division we regard as absolutely necessary ; and, so far as our experience extends, it is universally made. We can suggest no change in the matter of keeping these two parts under separate supervising jurisdiction. In our judgment, however, there should be a clearer understanding of what is properly included in each part, so that responsibility for results may always rest upon the right parties, and corrections be made without any ambiguity as to the right place at which to begin.

Generally what we have called external matters of school-work fall under the supervision of directors or boards of control, elected by the vote of the districts or municipalities in which the schools are, and acting under the limitation of State law.

To this part of supervision belong, without doubt, the selection and purchase of proper school grounds, the erection or rent of suitable school buildings, the levy of taxes, the determination of teachers' salaries, and the proper furnishing of the schools with all that is required to place and keep them in fitting condition for occupancy and use. For external work of this kind the whole responsibility should rest upon the boards. This is the general practice, although there may be great differences in the specific legal limitations under which the work is done in our various States and Territories ; for as yet we have no minister of education with power to suggest an organized educational system which shall be more general than that of the individual States.

What we have called the internal matters of school-work require a supervision quite distinct from this. Here, without doubt, belong the examination of teachers and schools, and methods of instruction and discipline, granting of certificates, and the privilege of a wide range of recommendation to the boards. Thus far, what is made to be included in either department of supervision can give but little difficulty.

But to which element of supervision shall belong the important work of determining the grades, the courses of study, the kinds of apparatus, and

text-books, the appointment of teachers suitable to the various schools and grades?

In the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania this work is placed almost exclusively within the jurisdiction of the local boards. Superintendents, whether of county, borough, or city, have no power of determination beyond what is simply advisory; yet they are held responsible for didactic results peculiarly dependent upon just these elements of supervision.

If, for example, the school buildings or grounds are out of order through fault of location or construction, or through neglect of repair, or if the children suffer through wrong sanitary ordinances, or from want of school facilities, there can be no hesitancy in fixing the responsibility where it belongs. If, however, the schools languish because right teachers are not in right places, or because the courses of study are inadequate, or unsuitable text-books are kept in use, or defective systems of grading are maintained, or no proper apparatus is in use, the superintendent is very promptly held responsible, although he may have had no voice whatever in determining the selection in either case, beyond that of advice merely. Indeed, if advice has been offered, the superintendent may be charged with meddling in matters quite beyond his official business.

It is true that in most cases superintendents can revoke certificates upon proper evidence of immorality or incompetence on the part of their holders; but this is only a remedy of obstruction, and requires great prudence lest the superintendent defeat his own purpose by arousing the animosity and prejudice of the boards and weakening his whole power of well-doing. Practically, it is often but locking the door after the thief has entered and gone, and then shooting the police officer for untimely interference.

Indeed, the certificate may be all right in itself, and the holder thereof may have general qualifications of a high order, but what the superintendent needs is the power, in some form at least, to put the right teacher in the right place, that he may secure the best results which flow from the specific adaptation of talent and experience. Engineers and firemen, and conductors and brakeman, are alike needed in running a railroad train; but sad work will follow if these officers change places, although each may be well qualified for his specific position.

Our boards are not always qualified to judge of text-books, or to determine the range of studies needed, or to fix the grades, or to select the right teacher for the right place, or to pass an intelligent criticism upon either the need or character of apparatus. They are not often composed of men skilled in the profession of teaching. They are selected mostly in reference to those external school matters to which we have called attention. Therefore, in our judgment, they should not have sole jurisdiction in this more internal work of supervision.

On the other hand, superintendents are, or should be, selected just because of their professional skill and experience. Therefore, in all cases, superintendents, whether of city, or borough, or county, should not be allowed to enter upon their office simply because they have been elected by the boards. To this should be added the necessity of commissions from the chief educational authority of the State, based upon the severe test of credentials carefully determined by the law.

But should the superintendents of our cities and boroughs have exclusive control in the appointment of teachers, in the selection of text-books, and in the whole matter of courses of study, rotation of grades, and nature of apparatus? Shall we not run a great risk if we swing the pendulum too far on this side?

Under the very best regulations, and the most carefully devised limitations, a superintendent may be placed in office who will misuse the very powers we thus give him, working for himself and not for the welfare of the schools. Law must take into consideration the defects of men as well as their virtues—must lessen by proper checks all temptations to misuse, while offering every encouragement to well doing.

With some distrust of our own judgment, and with the hope that discussion may give more light, we suggest that in *city and borough supervision* the commissioned superintendent shall, by enactment of law, be *ex officio* chairman of the committee having charge of these inner elements of supervision already enumerated, and that his disapproval as such of any action suggested in reference thereto shall necessitate a two-thirds vote of the whole board before it can be carried into effect. Some such check will be of great service in improving our general system of city and borough supervision.

County supervision, because spread over so much larger territorial space, and including a larger number of boards and a greater variety of conditions, requires different treatment.

The very first effort towards improvement here should be to bring the supervision into narrower limits, *by subdividing the counties into subordinate inspectorates.*

Our counties in many States are large and populous. Indeed, in Pennsylvania the average number of schools to a county is *three hundred and eight*. How can a county superintendent supervise and inspect so wide a field? The mere statement of the question involves the answer. Every county, excluding the cities and larger boroughs therein, should be properly districted into inspectorates including not less than twenty schools, and not more than fifty, over which a well-qualified inspector should be placed, elected by the boards, and commissioned by or subordinate to the county superintendent. These inspectors should have the whole management of local institutes and the general direction of local school work, representing the county superintendent in a wide range of official duties. Within the limits of his supervision, the inspector should be *ex officio* chairman of all committees which have to

do with appointing teachers, fixing courses of study, grading schools, and determining upon the selection of proper text-books and apparatus.

This will insure more frequent visitation, and more constant inspection; and thus we may avoid the multiplication of officers, co-ordinate in authority with the county superintendent, who should be chief, for the more general purposes of granting certificates, holding county institutes, and directing the educational sentiment of the county; and also for reporting the general status of the schools of the county to the department of public instruction.

Beyond these few suggestions of improvement we can see no practical methods of securing a better system of county and city supervision than that which now prevails.

Hon. R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, Ohio, being absent, the president called upon Hon. W. R. Comings, of Norwalk, Ohio, to open the discussion.

Supt. W. R. COMINGS, of Norwalk, Ohio, said: I am familiar with the school system of no State except Ohio, and Ohio has no system outside of the cities. This want of a system is a misfortune to the State and will probably remain so, so long as its product, the "Ohio man," keeps to the front as an object lesson to the State legislators.

Content with seconding Dr. Higbee's paper, I turn to a somewhat different phase of this question of supervision.

A good system of school supervision is without doubt a help to the securing of a good education by the children with which it deals. But the danger in any *system* is to run into methods that are purely mechanical, and that have for their purpose the showing off of the system, thereby perverting the good which they might do into an evil.

A good education, which should be the result of a good system, is a factor in the evolution of a higher man, a nobler race, and a better Government. Whatever the system, then, we must look beyond *it* to its *fruits*.

The proper test of school supervision must be based upon the work done by pupils, not on that done by assistants, principals, or teachers. Considering this question, then, from the standpoint of the greatest good to the pupils, I shall merely make a few suggestions.

I. The superintendent should not be a mere compiler of statistics.

Statistics are important but not *vital*.

Monthly reports from teachers covering every conceivable form of attendance, punctuality, nationality, age, physical condition, mental progress and what not, are almost useless, unless it be to afford a superintendent or his clerk occupation in recording, summarizing, and reducing to per cents. I do not say that these things should not be obtained, but that, *to the pupil*, these things, that take so much time and effort on the part of the teacher, are of *no value*.

Statistics have their value; but may they not be secured from a *term* report, or from even an annual report made by the teacher, as well as from one made each month? In other words, is it not possible to turn the energy they require into other channels that will be of greater benefit to the pupils?

If there could be concert of action in this matter of statistics, I believe it would be possible to have a uniform system in the shape of annual or semi-annual reports, starting from the common school teacher and reaching, by way of the State officers, the United States Commissioner of Education.

The chief value of statistics is for *comparison*, and without uniformity comparison is impossible.

II. The superintendent should not be merely an examiner.

There is a better place for a general than in the rear of his army. A school system like an army must be led, not driven. "Reviewing" an army is no test of generalship. Examination of a school, however thorough, is no test of a true supervisor. All the good a *school* can get from a written examination can be secured by written recitations or reviews. These can be given as a part of the regular routine of school-room work, and as such are of high educational value.

But severe examinations, whether as a basis for promotions or to test the teaching qualities of the teacher, are of a nature to do more harm than good to the pupils, whose interests are, above all other things, to be considered.

Correct and efficient supervision calls for an educational *leader*. This leader should be a broad and philosophical thinker, yet conversant with all the methods and other minutiae of school-room work.

A very intelligent lady, formerly a teacher in Cleveland, Ohio, said to me not long ago, that Dr. A. J. Rickoff's power as a superintendent lay in his habit of suggesting high ideals, of pointing out the ends to be secured, leaving the teacher to discover the best means for reaching the end. It was not his habit to suggest *methods* until he had brought his teachers to feel their *need of help*. And it is said that he preferred originality on the part of teachers, rather than mere copying of methods in a mechanical manner.

Such a superintendent soon finds his teachers in a mood to discuss intelligently and earnestly the best methods of doing work, and his teachers' meetings soon show an earnest spirit of progress; they become not the occasion for berating teachers, but the means for healthful discussion of school-work and aims.

III. The wise supervisor is loyal to his board of education. A fault-finding superintendent cannot lead his board in educational work.

He should be loyal to his teachers in every earnest effort they make for self or school improvement.

He should be loyal to the public school system, promoting it by reformation rather than by criticism or denunciation.

IV. The wise superintendent will not allow his advice to teachers to conflict with that given by an assistant or principal of a building.

He will, however, make it his purpose to be the superintendent of instruction in all that the title implies. Discipline and the mechanical work of the schools may well be left to principals of buildings, but the carrying out of methods of instruction, whether by specialists or by assistant supervisors, should be under the direct control of the head of the system.

I am aware that these points are not a discussion of the question of the "best system," except as they may present the question, from the standpoint of securing the greatest good to the pupil.

Hon. H. S. JONES, Erie, Pa.: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: The educator must be a practical man. There are two reasons why our schools are weak; the first is, the frequent change of directive power. I go into our little city and look at a business, and say, "Is this a success?" I turn to Dunn's Book, and I find that it is. I trace back its history, and I find that the directive power of this business has not changed for twenty years. I turn to education, and I say to A, "How long did you serve?" "I served three months." I turn to B, "How long did you serve?" "I served a year." To C, "How long?" "I served three months and wanted to serve more. I got really interested in the work, but a young fellow came out, and here I am in the bench." I find that our superintendents generally change schools in two or three years. We cannot run a saw-mill in Pennsylvania if you change every three years; you could not even run a grocery store in that way. This is the main reason why we want more supervisory power.

The second reason for the weakness of our public schools is the transient connection of most teachers with the business of teaching. The large majority of the teachers are not even apprentices. They are called teachers, but they are often mere laborers. The average teacher generally expects to stop teaching next year, or she expects to stop when "somebody" calls. I once said to a young man, "I wish you would become a teacher." He began, and the glow of the teacher became fixed on his cheek. I said to him, "You are a nice fellow," and he was blossoming out into a success, but he did not have very much money, so he gave it up, and went out to obtain subscriptions for an album; in two weeks he had made more than he had in two months' teaching. He said he guessed he would stick to the album.

Now a word as to county superintendents. The most of them that I know, if they have a large county, have good horses and beautiful roads, and drive about, sometimes seeing three or more schools in a day. It makes me think of a physician, who comes in, feels his patient's pulse, says "You are badly off! you have typhoid fever," and then goes out. The county superintendent comes in, and if the school is a failure, he says nothing and goes out; if it is a good one, he says "You are doing splendidly," and goes out.

We really need some good supervision, some of the kind that has been spoken of here, that which permits the teacher to retain spiritual liberty. There are a great many people who, if they can only get a chance now and then, will have some liberty. These workers, if they could have the experience, would soon get the skill. I do not mean this kind of skill that we see once in a while. These workers ought to be under the influences of care and sympathy. These influences would lift them up, and there would not be this kind of teaching which we have, which is no better in the main than it was fifty years ago. The boys come in, and the girls come in; and the boys go out, and the girls go out, with all their freshness and sweetness, and when the teachers do remain, as I said, they gain a kind of skill that will never make a right usage of what we have, unless we supervise it. In every county there are some that might do more if they had supervision. Now, unless we have some skill and stand at the shoulder of this laborer, this apprentice, we cannot succeed as we would like.

I will give you an instance of it at home: Surrounding our city is a township on the east and south and west. Its schools were nowhere, and they said, "Let's have a sort of a superintendent," and they appointed one man to overlook fourteen schools. Those schools jumped up in less than a year, and at a small expense. They tried it in several other places, and some judge said, "Stop; that is not according to the statute." Now they have no district superintendent, and I think there are none in the State. If you bear in mind, first, the great business principle upon which our schools are based; and second, the coming and going of this great army of so-called teachers, you will see our difficulties, and I think the best thing we can do is to strengthen the directors and the teachers by more supervision.

Prof. W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Louisville, Ky.: I take it, my co-workers, that there has been no more important question that has been presented for our consideration than the question of supervision. I indorse most heartily the paper of Mr. Higbee, and the suggestions of those who have occupied the floor before me on this question, and it would seem that there could be no difference of opinion here as to by whom and how our schools should be supervised. How would it be possible for the superintendent to be one who is engaged in secular pursuits, one who is not trained and skilled in the developing of the mind? I desire to make this plain in reference to the city where I live, in order that my remarks on this occasion in reference to this subject may have their proper weight. In the supervision of our schools, although our board is elected directly from the people, it understands that the responsibility of the proper supervision of the schools of the city rests with the superintendent and those who may be associated with him in that work. In the arrangement of the course of study, the adoption of text-books, and all that goes to make up the proper supervision of schools, the teachers of the city are all, without exception, selected in reference to this work.

Now, I want to look at the principle which underlies this question. Who can supervise the schools, who has the qualification to do that work, other than those who have been trained for it? As the last speaker said, it seems to me that we ought to agree upon something when we come here. We ought to determine upon the right course, and stand shoulder to shoulder, but in the reaching for wider results we should look on all sides of the question. We should look carefully at the premises and see what the difficulties are. It would seem that there would be no difficulty in reaching the conclusion that that system of supervision is the best over which there preside those who are qualified by education and training to superintend that work. There can be no difference of sentiment here, it seems to me. I want to say this: that that supervision is best which does not seem to supervise. The superintendent who has that genius and that skill by which he can awake to this maximum power the intellectual and moral forces of those who are under him is the best superintendent. Now, perhaps, we ought to look a little at ourselves.

Perhaps some of our difficulty is that we have not learned the secret of power and influence, because we have been elevated to a high plane, which has turned our heads. Instead of realizing that he is greatest among us who is the servant of all, we have reversed that principle. When all the people engaged in this work work harmoniously together, each realizing his responsibility and his duty to contribute to the development of the entire system, then we will reach the solution of this question of supervision. I want to say this: that while we say a good deal about boards of education, I want to say that I have, with few exceptions, never seen a board of education, composed of intelligent men, who, when teachers would approach them presenting a unanimity of feeling and of sentiment in reference to what ought to be done for proper supervision—I have never yet seen a board that did not or would not listen to them in reference to this work. The trouble seems to be that we do not ourselves agree upon this question. Now then, he who is thus qualified to discharge this grave responsibility, he who has the honesty of purpose and of conviction to give the proper educational value to the work of those who are under him, who recognizes merit, who is governed by principle, he will have this influence. We ought to establish ourselves upon principle in this question. A doctor could not come in and supervise our schools, a lawyer could not come in and supervise our schools. They have not the qualifications. The necessity for training schools and for schools for the proper development and training of teachers, has no right at all to exist if it is true that we are going to promote those who are not trained in this work, to let them come in and take upon themselves the grave responsibility of controlling and directing this system of schools. I believe, from what I have observed and my experience in reference to boards of education—though, perhaps, it has been limited—that, wherever the teachers of a given locality will

present this question to the board, so that it reaches its understanding, that there has always been brought about a reform.

I wish to say this: that in the State of Kentucky we are fast getting hold of the community, and that this principle is recognized, and that it is incorporated into the laws of the State that every superintendent must be a practical teacher. I think that if a superintendent does his duty conscientiously he has got to strike something or somebody. I think the one thing that we need, because it is all that is required to determine whether the plans and schemes that are employed for the proper development of the child be correct or incorrect, whether they will accomplish their legitimate results or not, is that there should be associated with those who are required to administer the schools a tenure of office, because injustice may be done those who are not acquainted with the system and intimately connected with it in all its details. They may come to erroneous conclusions and may thus throw out those who are fully qualified to discharge its responsible duties. I think that the superintendent should nominate his assistants, and that the principal of the school should nominate his assistants, and these two ideas taken together constitute, in my judgment, complete supervision.

Hon. AARON GOVE, Denver, Colo.: I do not want to talk, but I want to ask a question. We have been told that the most efficient supervision was that where there was no supervisor. That sentiment was heartily applauded. We have since been told that what we need is more supervision, which was also received with hearty applause. As a seeker after truth, I would like to have this matter cleared up.

Col. F. W. PARKER, Normal Park, Ill.: There is a path which leads right to glory, and teachers must walk in that way. The superintendent is to stand just outside of the way, in order to see when they get out of it and to push them in again. That is keeping out of the way. He should be just outside enough to push them into the way. His position enables him to see them when they get out of the path.

It seems to me that the supervisor is a teacher of teachers. His whole work is to help teachers to learn. Everything he does, in all his examinations and all his rules and regulations, everything should come to one point, and that is, to incite and help to instruct and direct and suggest the study of the science of teaching on the part of teachers. The only good thing, the only right thing, and the only thing that will lead to greater success, is the investigation on the part of the teacher of the science of education, and the supervisor is one who leads that investigation and incites and helps it in every possible way.

Each teacher is, in a certain sense, an independent student of the science of teaching. He is led to apply that which he finds in the science of education, not outside of it. So that each teacher is striving after the truth, to apply that truth, and the superintendent stands there to support and help. I hold that the one great means of setting the teacher free is examination.

I believe the examination is a great power in the hands of the superintendent to set the teacher free. It is a great power, on the other hand, which will press them, which will make all of their work uniform, and uniformity of that kind is death. It may look beautiful, but it is death. The only thing to strive for is the knowledge which comes by the study of the science of education. I do not propose to talk about examinations, only to say that I know, in my own experience, that the art of all arts as a superintendent turns upon the examination of schools. Whatever you demand, that you will get. If you demand a low order of examinations, you get that, as a general thing. If you demand that which can be made only by genuine work, and nothing else but genuine work, then you will get that, and the art of examining, or science rather, is to demand nothing but genuine work, that springs from genuine character building. Ask for that, and ask for nothing else, and keep asking, and the teachers will begin to see the idea. The supervisor should be a teacher of teachers in every respect; as inspector, as examiner, as head of institutes, that should be his work; to inspire his teachers that they are just on the border-land of discovery, that there is much ahead of them to be discovered in the way of education, and he should seek to make each one of the teachers an investigator in the line of what is best and what is true in the development of human souls.

Hon. AARON GOVE, Denver, Colo.: I want to say that I am much gratified with this answer to my question, and I desire to say further, that of all the speeches I have ever heard I believe that to be the best one.

The PRESIDENT: The Chair notices in the audience Hon. A. G. Lane, superintendent of one of the largest counties in the United States, and I have also heard that he is one of the most efficient. He knows something about school supervision, and I am sure the convention would like to hear from him.

Hon. A. G. LANE, superintendent of schools, Cook County, Illinois: I shall speak for a moment or two about the subject of county supervision.

If I rightly interpret the duty of such officer, it is to hold such a relation to constituted authorities that he can aid and counsel and direct them in their efforts and their work, so that the work which belongs to them is fully accomplished; and that means the proper provision for the accommodation of the children, and the providing of the necessary teacher or teachers; and that the work of the superintendent touches all of the efforts of the school officers as well as teachers, taking and planning and using the individual power of every teacher in shaping and defining the work, and thus realizing, if upon him be placed the authority of selecting the teachers or of determining who shall teach, as is the case in the State of Illinois, the full and complete power vested in the county superintendent to determine who shall teach in the county. Therefore it is within the power of the superintendent to have either a

low or a high degree of work and of workers, according to the peculiar conditions in that county and the peculiar means that may be obtained to supply the necessary work. Near great cities and communities where there is a healthy sentiment that will sustain and support and advance education, to obtain the most cultured and best qualified teachers, the effort of the superintendent must be to arouse that public sentiment and bring together those that hold the power and inspire the effort that will result in providing the means by which teachers may be trained and directed. Under our system, as that power was vested in the superintendents, the superintendent was the first to move in the direction of establishing a county normal school and enacting a law that was the means of providing normal schools in any county, if the sentiment of that county was favorable; and under such a law we have the county normal school and we have the means by which we can educate our teachers for their work, and we believe that those who are to control the advance in this country through the children should be those who study the lives of the children and know enough about the unfolding of their mental powers and physical and moral powers to direct them as they come from the homes as little children. Realizing that the growth is to come through those people that are selected to direct and teach; realizing that all depends upon their work, for it is not possible that the power that shall accomplish the best results shall be vested in any one else than in the teacher, you must point out the way by which the teacher may have the knowledge and may grow, and you will be teaching those whom we are seeking to develop and to educate, you are reaching those for whom all systems are organized, and if the system does not have for its direct object the better training and teaching of the children, it had better be abolished and put out of the way. Under such a system of training and of providing for the teachers, we can control the means of examining and the character of the examinations at a point where you can meet the demands of the whole people by furnishing just enough teachers to supply their demands without having a surplus to enter into competition. Under such a system of training one-half of the 900 teachers in Cook County, outside of Chicago, have been trained in our normal schools since its organization in 1867. Last year a class of 80 graduated. They were in demand, and yet outside of that there was a necessity for 120 other teachers in the county to meet the changes that were occurring. The city of Chicago, with 1,400 teachers, constantly draws from the county, but, as we take them from the high schools, this in no way interferes. A system of institutes was prepared, so that before entering upon their work the teachers can be directed for a month or for five weeks specially in their work, and so, knowing the needs of a community, the superintendent may forecast or foreknow and secure the best he can obtain, and then put them under the proper training. The trouble is that all over this land there are thousands who are sent into the schools without any prepara-

tion for the work of teaching, without having any knowledge of the system that is used in these country schools, which are the nurseries for the higher schools, and they need that preparation; and the superintendent can, by his power of supervising and of direction, foreknow these needs, and, gathering together the best of the material, give the direction by the employment of the best talent that he has in his community, so that these teachers may be prepared. This is my idea. Under it such work as Colonel Parker has been doing will be greatly extended, until, appropriating the best there is everywhere, we may uplift the whole mass.

Upon the conclusion of Mr. Lane's remarks, at 12.50 p. m., the Department adjourned to pay its respects to the President of the United States.

SIXTH SESSION.

The Department was called to order at 7.30 o'clock p. m., Wednesday, March 16, Hon. N. H. R. Dawson, United States Commissioner of Education, occupying the chair.

The CHAIRMAN: Gentlemen of the convention, the discussion to-night was to have been opened by the Hon. James McAllister, of Philadelphia, but owing to his absence his place will be supplied. I am requested to state that Col. F. W. Parker, of Normal Park, Ill., will open the proceedings.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Colonel Parker began his remarks by deprecating any comparison of what he might say off-hand with the carefully prepared paper which was expected from Mr. McAllister, and which might appear hereafter. The questions which the minds of superintendents and educationists are trying to solve are intrinsically of far greater importance than those that come before either the State Legislatures or Congress. As these educational questions arise they and the devices and methods which arise from them should be tested by comparing them with ascertained principles in the science of education.

He could not quite agree with the remarks made a year ago by Mr. J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts, on the subject of industrial education. Mr. Dickinson considered the subject in its relations to elementary and scientific education, discussing the topic from a scientific standpoint. He came to the conclusion that the use of tools as a part of school-work was only a form of imitation, and as such a very imperfect means of developing the powers of the child. Colonel Parker failed to see wherein it differed in this respect from the teaching of language, oral and written; so that, while accepting Mr. Dickinson's premises, he was unable to come to Mr. Dickinson's conclusions. We must avoid dogmatism; we must not forget that it is our business to develop the latent *capacities* of each child into healthful and active *abilities*. The

original design of each child's mind should be developed and manifested in his character. Now, character is made up of habits, and all education is the formation of habits. Right habits promote healthy growth, and growth in character should result in growing freedom of thought and act. So far as industrial education is applied in our schools to the training of mechanics who are to be treated as though they were parts of the machines that they work with, it is in the highest degree reprehensible, and even terrible. We must not shape education into a means for helping machinery. Its purpose is to cause the child to work out the best of which he is capable. This is the reason why the kindergarten is of such immense importance in primary education. The child in it is taught, not only how to use the gifts and how to make the articles derived therefrom, but the greater, the diviner truth, that what we produce should not be primarily for ourselves but for others. It is this spirit which should inform any industrial training that we give in any part of the public school course.

That man must earn his bread by the sweat of his brow may once have been a curse; but work of every kind, when animated by this altruistic spirit, is no longer a curse but a blessing. By introducing manual training into our schools in this spirit Colonel Parker believed that it will develop a future which we cannot now conceive.

Hon. J. W. DICKINSON, secretary of State board of education, Boston, Mass.: *Ladies and Gentlemen:* For the most part, if I understand the speaker who has just taken his seat, I agree with him, and am sorry that he did not have more time for the discussion, because I think if he had he would have come upon the topic that is before us for discussion. Last year I had the pleasure of reading before this convention a paper on the province of the public schools, and as this subject is somewhat similar to that, I thought I would make an analysis of my paper, and present that with some views at this time, and as I read it I want to call your attention to that part of it which our good friend who has just taken his seat calls "dogmatic." I did not intend to have my arguments have that quality at all, and I thought, as I discussed the question in a quiet and orderly manner, as I treated, as I thought, all the topics upon the same general principle, that I should at least, if I did not prove my case, be free from the charge of dogmatism. Now, I will not occupy your time very long in reading what I have written here. I want to say at the commencement that I am not opposed to industrial education. I have spent my life in promoting it and preparing the way for it. The question is simply this: Shall we introduce what is called industrial education, not what Colonel Parker has called industrial education, but what is called industrial education, into the public schools of the country? That is the question.*

*Instead of the synopsis used by the speaker on this occasion, the whole paper as read by him at the meeting of the Department in February, 1886, is here given, because it was omitted from Circular No. 2, 1886, which contained the other papers read at that time.—*Editor.*

THE PROVINCE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.*

There is doubtless a wide difference of opinion among educators concerning the ends which the public schools should labor to attain. Some affirm that the public schools have failed to accomplish their purpose unless they have prepared the children for their special places in life, or have trained them in some of the special applications of their active power. Others, believing that in the general education of every child he should be considered an end unto himself rather than an instrument for the production of some end outside himself, would direct him to those exercises which have a tendency to produce a symmetrical development of all his faculties. This, they think, is the legitimate work of the public schools and the direct end to be sought in all disciplinary study.

In the first case the educator would direct his attention to the communication of knowledge, and to training his pupil in some of the occupations of life. In the second case his mind is fixed on what he can lead his pupil to become. On account of the existence of these two opinions, and of the two plans of instruction that grow out of them, we hear much, on the one hand, of the advantages of practical knowledge, and, on the other, of the value of a symmetrical development of the mind.

It seems necessary, therefore, for those who have anything to do in forming public opinion on educational methods, to determine what the public schools of the country should attempt to accomplish for their pupils. This appears the more necessary when we become aware that a choice of ends to be secured by school life will determine what subjects of study or occupations shall become the occasions of public school exercises.

If it is the function of the public school to prepare the children for some special mode of gaining a living, those exercises may be introduced which will train them to some special employment. This would graft upon our common school work the professional and industrial elements, and the schools would be no longer common schools. The next generation of citizens would be composed of men who might practice and pursue the trades with skill, but all would be done with special reference to supplying the wants of life. That intelligent desire for a higher life of the individual and a higher civilization of the State, which is strong in every rightly trained mind, would be obscured, and men would be moved chiefly by the mechanical and animal principles of action. But no system of public schools can be maintained for private utility alone. All social institutions must be founded on the idea of promoting public utility also, and in the administration of the system the public good must not be sacrificed for private ends.

* See report of the Massachusetts State board of education, 1885-'86, pp. 117-128, inclusive.

It is because there is a human education which should precede the acquisition of special professional or industrial skill, and which has a tendency to elevate the individual above the narrowing effects of any profession or trade or occupation and bring him to his special work with a trained mind, a strong will, and manly spirit, that we may establish public educational institutions, to be supported by a general tax, and may gather all the children into them for a common course of study. This sort of human training is what John Stuart Mill says every generation owes to the next, as that on which its civilization and worth will principally depend. It should be the ultimate end of public instruction to so direct the attention of the learners to themselves as individuals and to their relations to one another as social beings and members of the State that they will become true men—intelligent, loyal, and virtuous in all the relations of private and public life.

If this solid foundation can be established men will turn to their trades as branches of intelligence and not as mere trades, and they will pursue them with a conscientious regard not only for their own highest good but also for the highest good of all with whom they hold any relations.

Theodore Parker once said to a convention of teachers in his own State that “to the instructed man his trade is a study; the tools of his craft are books; his farm a gospel, eloquent in its sublime silence; his cattle and his corn his teachers; the stars his guides to virtue and to God; and every mute and every living thing by shore or sea a heaven-sent prophet to refine his mind and his heart.”

The spirit which the individual brings from the public school to his special work is of more importance, as far as either public or private utility is concerned, than that sort of special skill which public schools will ever be able to communicate. For this spirit will determine the use he will make of his skill after it is acquired.

Mill says that if we can succeed in the disciplinary schools in making sensible men they will be sure to make of themselves sensible laborers in the pursuit of whatever occupation they may choose.

After the disciplinary studies have been taken, then the industrial, technical, and professional schools should open their doors and offer to all who desire to enter the advantages of a special education.

We now have in the Commonwealth such schools, the best that human ingenuity and generosity have thus far been able to establish; and the way should be made easy to their instruction for all who desire a technical training. But these institutions have a right to demand that those who apply for admission to their classes shall already know the elementary facts of science, the processes by which the mind passes from particular to general knowledge, and the principles and rules which govern the use and construction of the language we speak. They have also a right to require of those who apply for technical instruction that training of the faculties which enables them to think accu-

rately and to behave with all the proprieties of well-ordered public and private life.

It has been found that those who take up the work of preparing for their special places in life, with minds trained to observe, to analyze, and to reason, joined with that self-control which enables one to turn his full attention to whatever he desires to do, soon outstrip all others by what they are able to accomplish.

Boys have been known to pass through the preparatory schools and the university with credit to themselves as scholars in the branches of learning pursued in those institutions. In their courses of study they were trained to use their active powers in gaining a personal knowledge of the real objects and subjects of their thoughts. In this way they formed the habit of accurate observation for facts and of performing with skill all those acts by which the mind passes from individual experiences to a knowledge of general truth. They left the university with that enthusiasm for practical life which a consciousness of the power of self-activity and a love for excellence always produce. Their collegiate education had not made them shiftless or indolent or despisers of hard, honest labor. Their acquired knowledge had excited in them a love for more knowledge. The development of their faculties and their modes of thinking had created within them the power of an intelligent and indefinite progress. With this general preparation for any application of their active powers they entered the mills in a manufacturing town to learn all the mechanical processes that work up the raw material into the finished product and with the idea of sometime becoming the directing agents.

The most menial service known to the business was performed with the skill which intelligence communicates to the eye and hand and with the pleasure which a foresight of good results adds to even manual employment.

They were in actual contact with that which they were to understand. No manual exercises disconnected from any real material products were perverting their practice. With minds trained to observe and to generalize, by the exercises of the schools, now directed to the particular operations of their business, they at once became conscious of what must be generally true.

This power of generalization, the product of right training in the elementary and scientific schools, enabled them to pass easily by all those who see only what is actually before their eyes.

The experiences and testimony of these young persons and their overseers prove that general intelligence and the power of self-control form the true basis of all high success in the practical applications of active power.

With this basis a course in the technical schools would have given them a more direct and easy way to experience and skill.

The term "practical" is sometimes applied to knowledge. This use of language often leads us into error, for by it we are in danger of attributing to knowledge that which belongs to power only. The most practical men in the world are those who have the largest and most symmetrical development of their active powers. A philosophical system of education, then, should provide for a general cultivation of the individual, as a human being, before his activities are turned into an unnatural channel by the pursuit of any trade or profession.

But the idea of introducing into the public school any exercises that have for their immediate end to train the children for special places in life has been quite generally abandoned, and for two reasons:

First. It has been discovered that a citizen of a free State has no special place for which he is to be prepared and to which he is to be assigned. The place that he is to fill is to be determined not by the accidents of birth, of race, or of wealth, but by the qualities of his mind and the use he makes of his power. The children as they enter the public schools do not bring with them the facts from which the teachers may infer what special instruction the future of each one will require.

Second. There is a growing sentiment in favor of directing public instruction towards that general development of the individual which will make a man of him, and in accomplishing this end fit him to enter with intelligence upon any service to which his capacities and his inclinations may finally lead him.

It seems now to be generally admitted that any system of public instruction that does not make human development an end, with all that is implied in it, is false in theory and a failure in practice. To justify the support of a system of public schools by a general tax there must be some common end which they are adapted to accomplish and which is necessary to the well-being of the people considered to be citizens of the State. This is the only solid ground upon which the public school may rest and expect public support.

Suppose, then, it be the concurrent opinion of those best able to judge that the proper function of the public school is to furnish the occasions of a symmetrical human development, it still remains to be determined what are these occasions.

Human development is produced by the right exercise of power. In school the occasions of this exercise are objects and subjects of thought. These, collected and rightly arranged, constitute our public school courses of study.

The schools are criticised for the poor quality of their products. Their graduates, it is said, pass out of their classes into active life with grave defects in their education. They know something of books, but they neither have the ability nor the inclination to produce anything. They can understand what is explained to them, but they cannot invent for themselves. They may have some power of thinking, but they cannot realize their thoughts in any product outside their own minds.

Their capacities have been trained, but their faculties have been neglected. The criticism, while it is largely the product of an active imagination, has some foundation in fact and directs our attention especially to one defect charged against the work of the schools. This defect consists of a failure to train the children to an independent use of their powers. It is proposed to remedy this defect by adding to our public school exercises a manual element in the form of training in the use of mechanical tools.

The most enlightened advocates of the new education, as it is sometimes called, would not occupy the attention of the public school with manual exercises for the sake of the manual skill which would result from them, but for the sake of that general development of active power which an orderly use of tools is said to be adapted to produce. For no other reason than this could the practice with mechanical tools find a legitimate place in the public schools.

Admitting that the defects supposed actually exist, it does not follow that they are due to defective courses of study nor that they may be removed by adding the operations of the workshop to the list. Both these things are assumed, but neither of them has yet been proved to be true.

Mere manual dexterity without reference to invention or construction is the product of imitation. To produce it requires simply a long practice in imitating a few mechanical movements that are first made by a master for examples to be followed. After a time the states of mind that give origin to the skilful movements of the body are hardly objects of consciousness at all, and the individual moves on under the influence of the mechanical principle of action.

Great manual skill is not unfrequently found with those whose general intelligence is not of the highest order. In our experience we find instances of the existence of the one without the other.

Some minds are conscious of that knowledge only which they have obtained by experience and of that power only which they have acquired by repetition. They may become skilled in imitating, but they will be wanting in independent and progressive power. They will also be wanting in that general intelligence which is necessary for the regulation of their private conduct as Christians or of their public acts as members of a free State. It was a significant remark, made by one who had devoted his life to the promotion of technical and industrial education, that we send missionaries to countries the skill of whose artisans is the admiration and envy of the missionaries themselves.

The public schools of Massachusetts were established that the learning necessary to the successful practice of self-government might not be buried in the graves of the fathers; that the learning necessary to set the people free from the bonds of those prejudices that enthrall the reason and the liberty of man might not be lost.

It appears from what has been said that in every complete system of public instruction ample provision should be made for the cultivation of general intelligence before the attention is directed to any special mode of life. This is because the individual is of more consequence to himself as a well-developed man than he is as a mechanical instrument, and because he is more valuable to the State as an intelligent and virtuous citizen than he can be as a skilful artisan. It does not appear that the cultivation of mere mechanical dexterity holds any necessary relation to general intelligence or to virtue. It may exist apart from all these states of mind and body which fall within the legitimate province of the public school to produce. It does not appear to be necessary to prepare the individual to pursue his disciplinary studies with greater facility or to enter upon the race of life with the ability to acquire for himself the highest order of either professional or industrial skill.

A distinguished president of an industrial institution recently read a paper before a large convention of public school teachers upon the topic entitled "The Workshop in the Public School." He says: "For many years I have worked to develop the material and technical relation of education. I have sought to so direct both my own work and that of my pupils that there might ever be an open bridge between the theories of science and the familiar facts of every-day life, that each might be better developed by constant contact with the other. It may be that I have not worked as earnestly as I might have done; but I have not been able to discern such valuable results from hand-culture as my friends seem to find. I do not find that the exact construction of a box leads to the exact construction of an English sentence, but that mechanical students need as much drill in writing as any other. I have not found that students in mechanical courses were especially good in their mathematical work. On the contrary, I do find the best workers in wood and metal are those who have proved that they have clear thoughts and can express them clearly, and they who have shown large mathematical ability. Is it not possible, in these materialistic days, we push the methods of the laboratory too far? May not the gross and material concepts gathered in the shop so stand as to obscure the clearer and exacter intellectual concepts?"

Says another most distinguished authority: "The fundamental idea of our theory of mental education is, as I think, that of the superiority of man to his uses. Our primal thought has been to develop the individual man roundly and fully in himself. The service which he does for the world is the natural outgrowth of what he is." This is the language of experience and philosophy; it directs our attention to the use of other means than the workshop for a proper modification of the work now done in the public schools. What changes, then, do we need in the conduct of the public schools that they may do their own work in the most productive manner? If the defect consists in a failure to cultivate practical power in the minds of the children, then the reform

we need is not so much in courses of studies as in the method employed in presenting these courses to the learner's mind.

If it is true, as affirmed, that the children are not able to do any independent work when they leave the schools it is because they were not permitted to work independently in their class exercises. A skilful analysis of the mind of a school graduate will expose the processes to which it has been subjected during the periods of its tuition. In the examination we should inquire for the nature of the knowledge acquired and for the kind of training the faculties have received. Pupils who have been brought up on books alone will show when they take their places in the world that the world is a new object of thought.

The words of a book, if understood, direct attention to the ideas which they name, and not necessarily to anything beyond them. One may use a book and understand it and still be ignorant of the objects it describes.

From these statements it appears that in the acquisition of knowledge words were never intended to take the place of things. When used exclusively in the schools they seem to close the senses and the understanding against the true objects of knowledge, and the individual passes through the world without seeing it. Again, if we turn our attention to the effect on the mind produced by the abstract use of language in study we shall find that such a use is adapted to cultivate the passive powers only. The mind is active in receiving effects whenever it uses language as a substitute for objects as occasions for ideas. In such a case its labor is simply to discover the invented by other minds. The result of such an exercise of the faculties is to prepare them to obtain information rather than knowledge; to feel impressions but not to produce them; to be controlled but not to govern; to imitate the acts of others but not to invent an independent course of conduct.

All this is changed when things take the place of words. Then the mind becomes conscious of knowledge and of obtaining it by its own efforts. Under a system of objective teaching the learner is brought in direct contact with whatever he is to know—with natural objects, language, abstract truth, and states of mind. These are all made objects of consciousness as a condition of knowledge. The pupil in this way becomes an original investigator. He is trained to handle the objects of his investigation. He learns the true method of thinking by using it, and in time he will find the source of his activity within himself. An individual trained in this way will acquire a knowledge of the facts of science by the use of his own observing powers. He will become skilled in analyzing the objects of his study by practice in analyzing them, and so will furnish his mind with that elementary knowledge which will form the basis of scientific classifications and of reasoning for general truth. This training leads to self-control and to a preparation for taking up the work of life with a good prospect of success.

In addition to the objective study of things, of which I have spoken, we have two exercises in the schools that are especially adapted to train the mind to a skilful use of the eye and the hand. I refer to drawing and to the practice by the pupils of constructing their own simple illustrative apparatus. Drawing is the language of form, and may take the place of written speech as a mode of expression. It implies a careful and prolonged observation of things to be described. It presents occasions for a free exercise of judgment, imagination, and invention. It is one of the best means of cultivating the taste by requiring that exercise of the faculties upon which the activity of taste depends and by directing attention to the beautiful in the works of nature and art.

In constructing the means of reproducing physical phenomena to be observed the mind is most thoroughly exercised in the study of the phenomena themselves. The exercise of making the apparatus is not now a simple imitation of a few mechanical motions; it is an invention of the means of illustrating ideas and of presenting the phenomena of nature in a convenient form for a prolonged and systematic observation.

Our schools are overcrowded with work already. In the elementary grades there seems to be no time for the systematic study of the qualities of objects, nor for the application of the knowledge thus gained to a systematic observation of natural objects, nor for such an exercise of the faculties as will add to their original state a facility in acting.

In most schools there is no opportunity given for acquiring, in a philosophical way, an orderly knowledge of the facts of any of the sciences. Even language itself is learned as a collection of words rather than as a means of expressing ideas.

As a result of these omissions there is a failure to train the powers of observation and analysis, upon whose culture and products all future scientific study, all true exercise of the reflective powers, and all high success in the operations of practical life will depend.

It is a common criticism that pupils pass from the elementary to the scientific schools with little or no preparation for the pursuit of scientific knowledge; that the high schools, the technical schools, and the colleges are compelled to stop in their courses and teach the facts of science before scientific study is possible.

It is urged that sewing and cooking should take their places among the branches of learning and practice pursued in the public schools as a matter of plain necessity. If our civilization and the conditions of our social life render it necessary, then let these occupations be taken in the public schools as a burden upon them, but not as in harmony with the spirit or work peculiar to these institutions. It should be the aim of every wise educator to so train those under his care that when they come to take direction of home affairs they will perform with skill and fidelity all the duties of home life, especially the duties of prepar-

ing, in a proper manner, food and clothing for the nourishment and protection of the body.

The object of public school life, then, is not to teach special professions nor occupations nor trades, nor to practice those exercises which produce mere manual dexterity, but to develop the child and bring him to his special work with trained faculties and an honest purpose.

After the powers are sufficiently unfolded, and good habits are formed and independent ability to acquire knowledge from the study of things and information from communication with other minds have been acquired; after the foundations for a true manhood have been established by the disciplinary exercises of the public schools, then let the technical and industrial schools offer to all who desire it the opportunity of preparing for special places in life.

The cities and large towns may establish industrial schools where the school population who cannot be trained at home may have the opportunity offered to them of acquiring manual skill. Technical schools may also be organized for those who, having passed through their disciplinary studies, desire to obtain the advantages of a technical education. But the public common schools of the State must not be confused and burdened with work of the home or of society or of the church. These schools will fail of accomplishing their purpose and will lose their hold on public confidence if they attempt to teach that knowledge which is not necessary for all to know or to produce that cultivation which is not necessary for all to acquire. The common schools are necessary for the State, special schools for the individual. The one should be made universal and the attendance upon them compulsory; the other should be offered to all who desire to enjoy their advantages.

Let the work in the public schools, as they are now organized, be done in accordance with the true philosophy of teaching and study, and the children will graduate from them prepared to enter, with every prospect of success, upon the performance of the duties of either private or public life, or, if they choose, they can enter with disciplined minds into the professional schools for special instruction. In either case they will be likely to become honest and intelligent citizens of a free Commonwealth.

Upon the conclusion of the reading of Dr. Dickinson's paper Dr. M. A. Newell moved that it be referred to a special committee to consider it; which motion was agreed to. The Chair then appointed Dr. M. A. Newell, of Baltimore; Superintendent Aaron Gove, of Denver, Colo.; and Superintendent A. G. Lane, of Cook County, Illinois, as such committee.

Hon. W. B. POWELL, superintendent of schools, Washington, D. C.: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: I think that the question before us is no longer open for discussion; that the public has declared that handcraft shall be taught in the public schools. I believe that the careful observer of

society during the last few years, with its commotion tending towards convulsion and anarchy, will decide that the two great parties in society, the capitalist and he who gains a livelihood by intellectual pursuit on the one hand and he who earns a living by the use of his hands on the other, shall cease to be educated at the public expense on diverging lines; that their education shall be conducted, while conducted at public expense, towards each other, to the end that each may appreciate more fully the part performed by the other in human society. I believe that the careful observer will decide that the public school shall consider all the faculties of the children and shall decide to build on broader lines at the bottom and cease to build finer and higher at the top. I prepared a paper of some length before I knew what would be required. After finding out, I tried to reduce it.

Mr. Powell then read the following paper :

If there is any institution of the many forming our complex society that is a growth, a development, the public school system is one. The needs of the people, as seen and understood by the people, are the soil out of which the public school system grows.

In a broad sense it is not the province of the schoolmaster to determine what shall be taught. In a restricted sense the school authorities fix the course of instruction and determine what parts of subjects shall be taught, but whenever this authority prescribes a curriculum not in accordance with the public needs, as understood by the public, trouble arises, and the school, if too ambitious, suffers and is not infrequently torn down. If not ambitious enough agitation never ceases until the work is corrected. The history of high schools is given in evidence of this position.

The public school does not make public sentiment; its office is to do the bidding of the public will. Public sentiment is formed by other instrumentalities—the professional and the secular magazines, the newspaper, the forum, the pulpit, the technical institution for investigation and experiment, supported by private benevolence, the philosophical society, the civic society, and scores of other societies—all public agitators. Each of these does its work in determining the relations of social, domestic, and political society, and declaring the values of these relations, until the people see and understand and decide what they want for themselves. These form public opinion.

The public schools to-day would be teaching “the three R’s” had not public opinion demanded a broader teaching. In a restricted sense the school authorities fix the course of instruction. Public sentiment demands what subjects shall be taught; the school authorities decide how much and what parts of such subjects shall be taught and in what order they shall be presented. This educational problem is more important and more difficult than any other with which the schoolmaster has to deal.

It was decreed that the elements of physics should be understood by the children, and the work has been added to the school curriculum. It was declared that a knowledge of plants and animals, a knowledge of the laws of health and the rules of right living should be taught our children, and these subjects have been added to the course of instruction. It was feared that the school course would be crowded, and many complaints have been made because of the great amount to be learned; but where the schoolmaster has performed his part well in determining what parts of these subjects shall be taught, where the professional part of the work has been done properly, it is found that there is no crowding of the curriculum and that this apparently great mass of work only gives healthful variety. For instance, if a child is to be taught the use of language he must first be made certain that he has idea and thought requiring expression. That he may gain idea and thought in a systematic training in seeing and comparing and concluding he is presented with natural objects, as plants or animals or with other physical phenomena. He thus comes to a knowledge of the forms of nature, either animal or vegetable, while, in fact, only preparing himself for his language lesson.

If I read the signs of the times correctly, the civic societies, the philosopher in his den, the essayist, the philanthropist, the political economist, the scientist—all have been at work. They have solved the problem, or they believe they have, and they have made the public believe they have solved it; and the schoolmaster has only to accept the result, for even the legislator, whose office it is to formulate the relations discovered by others and fix to such relations their values, has declared it, and the law has been made, and the demand upon the schoolmaster is mandatory that a part of the child's common school education shall be a training in handcraft.

This is an age characterized by the triumphs of mechanical skill, which triumph alone is a recognition of the importance of handcraft as a factor in human development. The people have been easily convinced of the value of manual training because, as is natural, they see the relation of this to the question of subsistence and prosperity. But not this alone. The people have seen long lines of men going to the front, and have seen that these men, without college education, without scholastic training other than that which has come through and because of the hand, now manage thousands of the industrial enterprises of this country. They see that they control complex means of communication, long and expensive and complex means of transportation. More than this, the people have looked into our workshops and have seen men skilled in handcraft capable of adjusting, creating conveniences and wealth and the instrumentalities that contribute to refinement, although the moods and tenses of their verbs are not always what they should be, and they have come to believe that there is an education intellectual, a development and training of the mental capacities, of perceiving, com-

paring, concluding, and doing that comes through the training of the hand. The people have seen, and many of them now appreciate, that hand-culture, handcraft, is a sixth, a higher and a dominating sense, a sense purely anthropological, which, with the spiritual, puts man in a kingdom of nature above the animals which he controls; that this sense is that which puts man in control of his environments, so that instead of being their slave and being controlled and modified by them, he makes them do his bidding and contribute to his happiness, his growth, and his financial benefit. The schoolmaster, in his capacity as such, never developed this and never would, such is the conservatism of letters. The schoolmaster as a philosopher, in his association in other societies and in other callings, has had his share in the growth of thought. The work of Pestalozzi and Froebel cannot be forgotten, but the kindergarten owes its introduction to the public school system—not to the schoolmaster, but to the philosopher, the philanthropist, and the capitalist who has gained his wealth by handcraft. It is beginning to be recognized that handcraft has added no small share to the sum total of human thought, and that handcraft at all stages of cultivation is suggestive and is productive of new thought. It cannot be denied that the psychological importance of eye-culture and ear-culture, in connection with intellectual training, is recognized by all who seek a symmetrical development of the young, though to gain this recognition in systems of teaching the five senses have had a hard struggle. Equally hard has the sixth sense—handcraft—struggled for recognition. It is now recognized. It were unfortunate if eye-culture and hand-culture were not to be recognized in our system of intellectual training, that the kindergarten were introduced, for the kindergarten gives us the beginnings of all that is asked by those who would introduce manual training for general culture. The eye is trained and the hand is made to shape and form and adjust, doing the bidding of judgment and fancy.

The growth of machinery has transformed the industries of the country and has practically reduced the work of learning to do the myriad things that are now done to learning a single trade—that is learning to manage and run a machine. What changes have been wrought! I was told ten days ago that the carpenter no longer even needs a shop, his work is turned out by machinery in condition to be put together a finished product; and that the laborer need to know only how to fit and to adjust, and moreover that he who has learned to adjust and control machinery can, with a few weeks or a few months of special effort at most, manage any one of the multitude of machines used in preparing the material. Now it takes but little more time, specially directed, to prepare him who has general training in the management of machines to manage profitably the machines doing work in iron or other material than wood.

Thus it is that apprenticeship has declined and that the trades have been reduced to one so far as learning a trade is concerned, except a

three or six months' apprenticeship or training for special work. Machinery has centralized labor, and the apprentice, if taken now, instead of being made to do menial work, as sweeping shop, feeding pigs and cows, and grooming horses for a large portion of his time during his three, five, or seven years' apprenticeship, is put at work with a machine and is kept at that special work, and, if he has any aptitude at all, becomes very profitable to his master, because he accomplishes as much as the journeyman or the full hand. Men seeing and knowing these things refuse to bind their children to apprenticeships. Moreover, competition is so sharp and close that the contractor is unwilling to allow his competitor more apprentices than he has himself; hence the compact between contractors or the laws and rules of trades unions that contractors shall have apprentices in proportion to the number of men in their employ. This law has not been made by trades unions, as has been supposed and as has been so generally stated, to limit the number of skilled workmen, but it has been made that the number of apprentices (whose labor is so profitable) employed by a contractor may be in proportion to the whole number of workmen employed, to the end that contractors may share this profit relatively. My observation and experience lead me to believe that it is a mistake to say that workmen oppose hand-training because they fear overproduction of workmen, but rather that they as fathers demand it for their children and as honest men encourage it for the children of their neighbors.

What, then, is demanded of the people's school to-day is that such general culture in handcraft shall be given as will fit the young learner, after taking three or six months' special training in the industry of his choice, to do the work and draw the pay of a journeyman. This amount of cultivation in handcraft in the school course is demanded, not alone because of the specialization of industries, though this would be reason enough, but because the general cultivation and breadth of knowledge demanded of the commonest citizen requires increased time of pupilage. The narrowing of activities by the specialization of the industries has made it necessary to shorten the hours of labor because the activity required does not furnish the necessary variety. If the hours of labor are shortened the citizen and the State alike demand a cultivation and knowledge on the part of the laborer sufficient for his entertainment and occupation during his hours not devoted to labor. The ignorant man is not a safe man in leisure.

Experiments have been made in sufficient number to show that the work of manual training in connection with the public school is practicable. These experiments have shown—

1. That the scholastic work of the school does not suffer, but rather that it is improved, by taking a portion of the time allotted to school-work for training pupils in the use of tools.

2. That it increases the liking for school-work, for it appeals to and develops the creative spirit, and causes the learner to appreciate the

value of improvement by self-activity, and leads the pupil to value his own powers as a self-teacher. This has been shown more by the introduction of the kindergarten methods than by the introduction of workshops, because there has been more experiment at this end of the line than at the other; but evidence is not wanting that what has been stated is true respecting the introduction of workshops also, especially where such training has been introduced to complement or supplement the scholastic work of the school by giving practical application to the same.

3. By the health it gives and cheer it produces in giving variety of exercise, thus relieving the monotony and tedium of school-work, and by associating study with what the learner can appreciate as the practical in life, and by changing school-work from a task to a pleasure.

As a long and careful observer of school methods and their effects upon the present and future lives of the students, I believe the last consideration is reason enough for the introduction of manual training into the ordinary work of the public school.

He who would receive physical benefit from exercise must take such exercise for other purpose than physical benefit. He must saw wood for two dollars a cord, and not for exercise. He must be chosen on one side or the other and play ball to beat, and not for exercise. He must walk to see a friend or to obtain a flower for analysis. But the illustrations given do not fairly illustrate the benefits that are derived from carefully directed physical effort which is to be had in a properly conducted workshop.

4. It has been seen that leisure hours are devoted to self-improvement by the exercise of hand and brain. Recreation and rest are given by variety in activity, the only rest needed by complex man except the rest enforced by nature in sleep.

By the teaching of handcraft education will be productive to the State at every stage of its advancement in proportion to the amount given, which is not true of scholastic education. One of the chief purposes of the State in educating a child gratuitously is to render him self-supporting and, if possible, productive to the State.

Music, drawing, and physiology and hygiene have, one by one, been incorporated into the curriculum of the public schools, and where this work has been well done (as has already been intimated) it is found that the course is not necessarily crowded. Manual training can be taken on, too, without disadvantage to other parts of the curriculum. What work of manual training shall be selected it is not easy to determine. The *what* in teaching is always more difficult to determine than the *how*. No doubt the continuation of work begun in the kindergarten, adjusted to the growing capacities of the children, will give the early part of the general training necessary. After this there must be

shops and special teachers. There will be expense connected with this; the teaching force must be increased; workshops and tools must be provided. The average expense of education will be increased because there will be the expense for the purchase of materials, and that for the supply of tools, which will wear out, and which will need to be changed from time to time as tools are improved and processes of work are changed. Tools will need to be changed, perhaps, oftener than books. The course of instruction in manual training will change year by year as machinery increases and processes change. I can see, however, no more difficulty, except in the matter of expense in the introduction of handcraft in the school course, than there was in the introduction of music or drawing. It would be a pity—indeed a sore calamity—if manual training could not be introduced with less difficulty, less expense, less failure, and with less foolishness than have attended the introduction of drawing into the school course. Some changes in the other branches will be required, as in drawing and mathematics. Courses of drawing are not alike in different cities and localities. It is not desirable that courses of manual training should be alike. Each locality, especially the smaller places, after providing for general cultivation of the hand, will round out its course by a process of training suited especially to the industries of that locality. In larger cities the last year of training may vary with the different localities of the city, as, for instance, the final year's work in one section of the city may be directed especially towards one kind of labor, a second towards another kind of labor, that of a third towards another kind of labor. This will avoid the expense of duplication and will give an opportunity of choice to the learner. Distances need make little or no difference to pupils of this age.

Manual training has come to be ingrafted on our public school system. It has come to stay. It has come to harmonize our developing systems as a physical and an intellectual embryo. It has come to make productive all teaching and development at whatever stage of growth the learner may withdraw from the school. It has come for a greater purpose—to unite the intellectual to the highest physical sense, the sense that is purely anthropological, and thus give to all scholastic learning a fibre which it has never yet possessed.

WHAT A SMALL CITY IS DOING IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Hon. H. W. COMPTON, Toledo, Ohio: I share in the disappointment which I think must have been felt here when it was announced that Mr. McAllister could not come. I had expected to hear from him a scientific and practical statement of manual training, because he is in daily contact with it and knows what it is and what it does for the pupil. Since learning of the absence of Dr. McAllister, and hearing the remarks and papers that have been read by other gentlemen, I have been sorry that I had not prepared a paper too, and I regret that I

shall have to trust to a few rambling remarks upon the subject of manual training, and I fear that it will not be interesting, for I know that I am rather dry. However, I am going to talk for a few minutes, and will try to give you some idea of what manual training is from our point of view in the State from which I come. I feel, too, that in the presence of gentlemen who have grown venerable in the cause of education I ought to be a listener, and if what I have to say is possessed of any value it will be solely because I have been intimately connected with manual training for a few years, because as principal of the high school I have heard those classes recite daily that are doing manual work and have had daily supervision of them. I would like to say something, too, about the theory of manual training, but you have heard considerable about it, about its merits and demerits, so that unless I should have time after I get through I will not try it, but will give you a plain statement as to what we are doing in our city for manual training and what we believe to be its object and what it is accomplishing.

We began, in our humble way, about four years ago in this work. We hired one instructor, a graduate of the St. Louis Manual Training School, who is a very successful instructor in this work, and our success is largely due to his efforts and interest.

We fitted up a room, which would accommodate two classes of 24, with tools and benches. We also had a recitation-room for a drawing-room. We had also a drawing class of 15 or 20 girls in free-hand drawing. The boys did the first year one hour a day of work in drawing, and two in shop work, besides the regular school-work. The interest and enthusiasm in this work were very great, and we had more applications than we could receive. We were limited to 48 boys and 20 girls. This state of enthusiasm and interest we had to modify and regulate somewhat. It was in danger at first of detracting from the regular mental work, but since that time we have so succeeded in adjusting the hours of recitation and hours of work in the shop and in drawing that the system is progressing smoothly. For the first year the interest had become so great and the practical value of the report was so evident that we erected a large building adjoining our high school building. This building is 120 by 60 feet, with four stories. We have equipped that building with tools and benches, two lathes and forges, drawing-rooms, and a department of domestic economy for the girls. I will simply state, then, without proceeding to explain or to argue the matter, that these boys have taken this manual training work, drawing and shop work, and their daily work in school; that the greatest success and satisfaction exist. We have had a few who have failed, but they have failed in everything, and we must expect to find this occasionally. We have simply dropped them, but the great body of our students has not only become deeply interested, but has become very proficient.

If there is any one in this house who has any prejudice against manual training or any idea that it is not conducive to the best interests of the school I would like to take him through that school some day. I have tried it before, and I know that if I could take this opponent through the school and let him see these young people at the lathe, at the forge, and with a hammer hammering away at the iron work; if I could carry him up two flights of stairs to the workshops and let him see the lathes and those beautiful objects which they turn out; if I could take him to the department of domestic economy, to the drawing-rooms, and let him observe at the same time the work in the regular classes, I am confident that he would begin to see its educational value. I agree with the point which was made by the gentleman that to teach mere mechanical dexterity, to acquire that mechanical dexterity, is simply imitating. We do not do this. We teach the pupils to think and to express thought and to avoid imitating. We are doing this, and doing it with remarkable success, and I defy any man who examines the work to say that it is otherwise. I had myself a great prejudice against this school at the time it began. I shared in the misgivings of many, and it was not an easy matter for me to overcome this. I watched for failure in the mental work. I watched for bad results, but I must confess that I have not found them. I have found, on the other hand, a broad intellectual development. I think I have seen where the pupils become broader and more thoughtful, that their morals and their habits have been improved; and I think if I were to enumerate some of the advantages I would name this one—that it has brought to the schools more pupils than they have ever had before. You know the disposition of boys at 10, 12, and 13 years of age to break away to the bank or store or factory and get to making money—to work, as they call it. Our grammar school and high school have increased in numbers fully one-third since we introduced manual training. They are anxious to take part in this work. We lay special stress and emphasis upon this point, that we are laying a good foundation. If a boy becomes proficient in the handling of tools—the saw, the plane, the hammer, the square, chisel, or file—he has laid the foundation for all trades. He is an imitator, he has mere mechanical skill in one direction or the other, but he is independent. When proficient in the use of these tools, when proficiency in the making of his working design has been achieved, he has one side of his nature developed which has hitherto been neglected. We find it of inestimable value as an educational factor in the school room. I say that one of the best results is the fact that these boys all stay in school. If I were to name another good result it would be, I think, the educational value, the disciplinary power it gives as a means of interesting them. I will not attempt to speak at length upon this subject.

Another decided advantage which I have observed is the direct influence it has had upon their habits of life, their morals—we have furnished

them with occupation. There is no idleness, there is no laziness, in our manual training school. The boys have learned industry. I never see them on the street corners or engaging in any vicious occupation. We cannot get these boys to take a holiday. If we give them Washington's birthday or Saturdays they want to go into the workshops and make their drawings, and to their work every day in the week. So that they are acquiring better habits. If "Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do," there is nothing left for Satan to do in that direction.

Another decided advantage, and one which I think is destined to do a great work in manual training throughout this country, is that it dignifies and exalts labor and the laborer. A boy no longer looks upon manual work as the exercise of mere brute force. He sees in that skill and power to develop, and I know that these boys have more respect for a mechanic and for those industries that produce wealth in this country than they have ever had before. The other day I saw two of these boys watching a blacksmith as he finished the iron upon his anvil. They seemed to gaze upon his every motion. I asked them what they were interested in, and they said they were watching him handle his tongs, &c.

So it is I find them going to the machine shops about the city, informing themselves, criticising and learning every day; and if we thus lay the foundation of the mechanic arts and of the trades we do not care anything about teaching special trades, and we will awaken in these boys and girls sympathy and admiration for that which produces the wealth of this country, for the laboring man.

Discipline is one of the greatest benefits which manual training will confer upon the schools and people of our country. I think it will introduce in the boys sounder judgment. These boys know the qualities of the materials, and they become critics. If they ever become merchants or foremen of great manufacturing interests themselves they can never be imposed upon by the wiles of incompetent men or by poor material. They can be their own inspectors. A year or so ago I undertook to build a house, and I never felt until that time what a loss I had been the victim of in not having had manual training in my education. In the absence of superintendent or architect I was almost helpless. Some of the boys came out to see the house. They could detect the poor material and the incompetent workman, and they could criticise the tools, and tell when they were handled in the proper way, while I could not. This is simply an illustration of what these boys will be able to do as men when they are grown up, when they have great responsibilities resting upon them. In whatever occupation they may be engaged they will be perfectly competent to manage their own affairs.

And now I should say a word about the girls. The girls, as is usual in most cases, have succeeded admirably. They have taken up wood-carving, &c., and have done work which is equal in its perfection and

beauty with anything that the boys have ever done. They made cases, screens, &c., and they have gone on to higher tasks also. They have made beautiful tools which can be used in the shop. Occasionally an accident occurs, and very little is needed in the way of replacing tools. Now, the girls have done their work with success, and their mental work is done with uniformity. Occasionally the boys become careless, but the work of the girls has been beautiful throughout.

Recently we introduced the department of domestic economy, to teach the young girls how to prepare food on economic principles. We have a special teacher for this department. I would like to have some of those who are here attend that department and see those girls at work on the ranges and tables. I would like to have you go there and see the food which they prepare, and taste it. I think Dr. Dickinson would like that department if he were to go there, especially if he were hungry and had been boarding long in a Washington hotel. That food is well prepared and palatable, as I know from having tasted it often. Any one who comes in there and sees these girls at work making their recipes, &c., another division sitting on the seats waiting for their turn to come, would say this is practical education, here is something that is of value to the people.

As to the theory of education whether this ought to be in the schools or not I do not think that has anything to do with it. If it educates, if it develops the mind, if it prepares these hands and minds for the battle of life, if the people want it, if they are willing to levy taxes for it, why they ought to have it. It makes a symmetrical education, it develops the whole nature, and is of value.

I will close, then, by saying simply this: That we think manual training has come to stay; it has come to be regarded by us not as a good thing theoretically, but as a good thing in its practical study; we intend to keep it, for we believe in it.

We are going to do all that we can to spread it abroad, and before I sit down I want to say that I think one of the greatest enemies of manual training is the lamentable ignorance that prevails as to what it is and what it should be. I get letters, two or three a week, from villages where they are trying to have manual training schools, and they get a few tools and a few boards, and then get the village carpenter and begin in this way. You cannot have a manual training school until you get some one who can teach it, not teach boys and girls some manual dexterity and a few other things which they will learn by mere imitation.

If you will go into a box factory you will find a machine there which takes a piece of pasteboard and a pot of paste, cuts the board, folds it and pastes the ends and puts it away. That is what the imitator really does, and this is just the difference between our boys and the factory. In the factory the finished product is the great desideratum; that is what is wanted; the apprentice who makes it is of no account at all. We say

that the best, the most important, thing is the boy; we do not care anything about the product.

Maj. R. BINGHAM, of the Bingham School, N. C.: I have not heard the words "North" and "South" since this meeting began. But I come here as a Southern man, looking for the advancement of my own State, and I am perfectly willing to leave the advancement of other sections in the hands of those who have carried the other sections so far ahead of ours already. We must look at this thing from our standpoint. With us we are in a condition of change. Old things have passed away, and the change is for us vastly for the better. If there is not a new heaven and a new earth, there is a changed heaven and a changed earth, and the changed heaven has no war cloud on the horizon and the changed earth no volcano under its surface. We have begun a condition of prosperity much better than we had before and much more stable.

We have stability, and we know it and feel it; so that when we look ahead we look with clearer vision, we see farther and we see more clearly than our fathers did, who looked through the smoked glass of their peculiar conditions and who looked at things distorted. We look at ourselves, and we see one very disagreeable thing about ourselves; we see that we have done nothing, or but very little, in the past to develop the rich material which we have; that we have been, and are still, in some sense, hewers of wood and drawers of water to those who combine mechanical skill and the raw material, who take a pound of cotton and manufacture it into \$2, or \$3, or \$5; who create wealth by using this raw material which we turn loose and make nothing more of it; who create wealth for themselves by putting increased values into this raw material, in some cases as much as a thousand-fold. They tell me that a pound of steel manufactured into the hair-springs of watches is increased one thousand times. The best we have ever done is to increase two or three times, and we have only begun to do that lately. We see further that, comparing my own State of North Carolina and Massachusetts, for instance, for we take the North as having done much of this manual work and ourselves as having done very little, and just see the result. With advantages of soil and climate, with about the same population, we see that the State of Massachusetts is worth per capita \$10 to our \$1, and it does not take a man very learned in the schools to understand what that means. We see further that these people who have wedded the manual skill to the raw material have been successful in every work that they ever undertook, and war is a crucial test of the power to recover. We see that this people, who began upon that basis, and who have continued upon that basis, defeated the Indians, that they defeated the French and Indians, that they defeated the British in 1776 and again in 1812, and some of us who were at Appomattox Court House have a distinct recollection of some one else that they defeated. One great difficulty with us was that we did not have the material power

to oppose their material power. We had men enough to do most wonderful fighting, but our material gave out; we had no material power. They had it all. We had depended upon them for everything, and when we came to depend upon ourselves we did not have the material. It was a question of heavier guns, and we came out of the little end of the horn. We have learned a most valuable lesson thereby. We see further that technical education has been the condition of mankind for all the ages. Even away back in the time of the prophets there were schools that gave technical training, technical schools, training lawyers and doctors and teachers; we see that the different governments had schools to train officers and soldiers, as we see that all this has been going on in the past, and we look distinctly at the fact that we have no technical or manual training schools of any kind in the South. There are two or three supported by endowment, but none where any really valuable technical training can be obtained. There is a good deal of talk of manual training. Man has been called a knowing animal, a talking animal, a thinking animal; perhaps one of the best possible definitions is a tool-using animal.

Now look at the human hand. Many animals have five digits, just as man has, but man is the only one that has this power of presenting the thumb either in the same plane or out of it at right angles with the fingers. The other digits make man a tool-using animal, the thumb serving as the hand-screw to the otherwise useless jaws of the vise. He clamps the tool with the fingers and holds it. Consequently man is the only animal that has this simple power of turning the hand over upon the elbow joint.

No other animal has it. Our common English ancestry saw this fact and they crystallized it in their common speech. A lazy person won't do "a hand's turn." An ingenious person can "turn his hand" to anything. There it is. It is this power which enables man to grasp a tool with his hand and then to present that tool in any direction. He strikes it up or down, to the right and left; without any hesitation at all it is laid down. We of the South absolutely have not the respectable training schools necessary for the purpose of getting the skill out of that hand and arm. I say without any hesitation that as a practical question we cannot introduce manual training into the schools of the South. Much as it ought to be introduced, and as we need it, the conditions there do not justify it now. There is already too much stuffing in our public schools. The average teacher, I believe, seems to think that the average child is an empty gun and that he must load it; whereas the child is a loaded gun, and a magazine gun at that, loaded by the Almighty, and it is the business of the teacher to fire that gun. We do not want to stuff the child. We want to give him the power to think, to make an intellectual gymnast of him, and a physical gymnast.

German schools are far ahead of us in this. They go through the laborious process of training the mind with an accuracy that we hardly

realize in this country. A child goes from one school to another. There was there a great outcry from the schools of technology and scientific schools that their pupils were not allowed to go to the university. The idea was that they would take a university course in science and excel all others, but when they got there it was found that they were rapidly distanced by the men who had studied science for the first time in the university; the men who had been studying science all their lives were distanced by the men who had not studied science at all.

A gentleman who had been on a trip up the Nile told me that the most remarkable talent he had ever witnessed was in some of the natives. There he found an Egyptian servant boy who spoke ten languages. He asked him how he had learned, and he said that he had gone up the Nile with a family of English nobility; that he knew that they were rich and spent a great deal of money; he wanted some of the money, and so he had learned to speak the languages in order that he might obtain it. He had a great deal of lingual skill, but he had no mental skill; he had a skilful tongue, but no mind; that was the defect. We cannot in the South do anything without mechanical skill. The people there hardly realize the difficulty that they have to contend with. Take, for instance, Massachusetts and North Carolina. We are seven times as large, but have only one-tenth the manufactures of Massachusetts. Take nine-tenths of the money away from Massachusetts and spread the one-tenth that they have left over seven times the people they have.

Another thing. Take Massachusetts again. A large part of the people of Massachusetts live in cities and towns where they can get access to each other. With us one twenty-third of our people live in cities and towns, and you cannot get at the rest.

It is extremely difficult for us to get enough together to make a good school. We labor under difficulties that people do not appreciate at all, and we have done a great deal more than other people would do under these peculiar circumstances. It is very difficult for us to get any good teachers. If you put upon the teacher this mechanical training, which he does not know and has had no opportunity to learn, and put upon the child a mechanical training when he cannot read or write, what progress are you going to make? We see you from the North, where you have the advantages which money can give, and by seeing this thing done, we see you disputing about this, we see you saying that it has come to stay, and saying that it has not come to stay, &c. We look at it and draw our own conclusions about it; and we have resolved this, at least, that we are to educate the public sentiment of our people, to call their attention to this fact of our weakness and to the source of the strength of other communities. We will call our people's attention to the fact that there are millions in it, and they will begin to try to get millions out of it. We have as good a right to them as any one, and we are going to have them. Those who have been called upon to talk upon

this subject have urged the idea upon our people that there is money in it. The peculiar circumstances of our situation are favorable to it. We want to show that there is just as much power in the unskilled as in the skilled brain, and we want to show our people that they must combine the two to be wealthy and powerful. They are thinking about it now in a way that would surprise you if you could know it. Some of you think that our people have no mechanical skill. I think it is in them. Think of it for a moment. Who built the first ironclad that changed the whole conditions of naval warfare? She was built at Norfolk, and came out and did what she could. It was the Merrimac, a Southern invention, built by Southern people, and if we had had a chance to get her out before the Monitor was made something would have happened that did not happen. Where did the torpedo come from? If you will look at the naval history of the war you will find that twenty-seven or twenty-eight of the Federal ships were blown up by torpedoes during the war, and that wherever we got a chance we used these torpedoes. That has produced another change in naval warfare. Do you think that a people who did that have no mechanical skill?

Another illustration. I once heard a lawyer defending his client on the ground that he was a man of mechanical skill. It was during the war, and practical prohibition had gone into effect. We did not have corn enough in those days, and a stringent law was passed against turning corn into corn-juice. They prosecuted people for it. Now, this fellow began to furnish some of the article, and the authorities began to be suspicious; so he was arrested. When he was tried his lawyer proved distinctly that he had made it out of persimmons, and defended him upon this ground. The lawyer said: "Now, we all need mechanical skill, and that is what we have not had, and what we must have. Now, my client has set a brilliant example. He takes an utterly worthless article and manufactures a good drink; but he does not stop at that, he has improved his invention by putting a little corn into it, and he has gone on and improved it until he has learned to make a very respectable whiskey without one particle of persimmons in it."

Now, I believe that we have in the South advantages that no other people ever had. The fabric of our civilization has been broken up, but we have an opportunity to develop.

Some one asked Newton why he saw so much further than other men saw, and he said it was because he stood upon the shoulders of genius. We look upon the geniuses of the present time to see what they have done and will do. We look for the skill in their schools, for the skill in their mechanical schools, in their normal schools and universities, and especially for their skilled hands. We are looking for it and finding it, and you only have to look at Birmingham, Ala., to see that we have begun to get the dollars out of it. There is nothing to stimulate a man like getting some money out of something. We have just as keen an eye for

the dollars as any Yankee in the land. We feel that the way to have this power is to wed our raw material to our mechanical skill, and we will get it. I heard a story once of a boy whose father had died, and he wanted to have him prayed out of purgatory, so he paid a small sum of money to get his head out and his arms out, and then they demanded a considerable sum of money to get the rest of his body out, but the boy said: "No; I know my dad too well; I know that if he was so near out as that all thunder couldn't hold him." Now, what I have to say is that what we in the South are looking for is this: We must get the heads of our children out of the purgatory of ignorance, and then we must get the hands of those children out of the purgatory of unskilfulness, and when we do this we have laid the foundation for greatness and power, in North and South, upon a basis that will make this country greater than it ever was before, and we of the South intend to have just as large a share in that greatness as anybody else.

Upon the conclusion of Major Bingham's remarks, at 10.15 p. m., the convention adjourned.

SEVENTH SESSION.

The Department was called to order at 10 o'clock a. m., Thursday, March 17.

The PRESIDENT: I have the pleasure of introducing Hon. J. W. Holcombe, State superintendent of public instruction of Indiana.

Mr. Holcombe read the following paper:

A SYSTEM OF GRADING FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

The difficulty in grading a country school, still more in grading uniformly a number of country schools, lies not in devising a plan but in applying it; or, more correctly, it is exceedingly difficult to devise any plan which can be made to operate in the almost infinitely varied conditions and surroundings of school-work in the country. We may prescribe a perfect course of studies, comprising all the essentials of a common school education, and presenting each subject at its proper time and place,—a course arranged exactly in accordance with the organic relation of the branches and with the order of mind-development, the work stated in detail, duly divided and arranged in logical and psychological order,—but when it comes to enforcing such a course in the average country school—well, a little reflection on what such a school is, may well call a halt to the venturesome innovator, or will at least remove the wonder that this work of grading has been so long delayed. "A few years ago," writes a county superintendent, concerning the country schools, "what a boy studied was determined by his own caprice or by family tradition and custom. The teacher, confronted by forty or fifty pupils, found as many different courses of study, and was compelled to pass day after day in giving individual lessons to individual pupils. In such a school much time and energy were wasted, the greatest amount of

labor being required to produce the smallest result. It is easy to be seen, also, that such training—if it may be called training—serves to intensify family traits; that the studying of two or three branches to the exclusion of all others produces unsymmetrically developed minds, and fosters and aggravates individual idiosyncracies.” Another thoughtful and scholarly county superintendent describes the partial, imperfect, hap-hazard work of the country schools, and the incomplete results of a child’s training therein, substantially as follows :

Pupils have been allowed to pass through school, giving attention to but few branches and neglecting others equally essential; pupils are advanced rapidly in some studies, while in others they make slow progress because these latter were not commenced at proper times or given due attention; pupils are required to study the same parts of the same branches year after year till all interest is dead, or are promoted not from any evidence of scholarship but at the importunity of the child, the whim of the parent, when the book is worn out, or when the teacher wishes to appear as making progress. Two wrongs are done the child by allowing these systemless ways to control his career—he does not acquire all the knowledge that is his due, and what he does acquire is without regard to symmetrical development. “Who ever finishes anything in a country school?” is a current question. A majority of the children obtain a knowledge of only four branches and an imperfect knowledge of those.

Such testimony might be accumulated indefinitely, for innumerable have been the comments on this state of things, in which “a pupil might have finished the Fifth Reader and never have studied geography or might be quite proficient in arithmetic without any knowledge of grammar.” Indeed, the picture of the old-time country school, preserved to us in song and story, is interesting and not un instructive. The teacher was there and the birch or hickory also, and on benches of some kind the boys and girls, miscalled “scholars.” Classification was carried to the last point of subdivision possible without dividing a pupil; that is, each pupil was a class to himself in every subject he studied. The teacher’s time was occupied with hearing lessons, giving from two to ten minutes to each class (as defined above), and in whipping the unfortunates whom the tedious hours, vacant of occupation in well-directed studies, inevitably drove into mischief and disorder. The text-books were as varied as the generations from which they had been handed down. It is clear that in such schools a great deal depended on the genius of the pupils, on their having “a natural aptitude or affinity for knowledge.”

If anything further is needed to show that the country schools had to be reformed, the consideration of two points will be sufficient: (1) Approximately three-fourths of the educational work of this nation is done in and for the country schools, as shown by the statistics of a State that may be taken as fairly representative, where 72 per cent. of the children were enumerated in the country, 82 per cent. of the teachers were employed in the country, and 68 per cent. of the revenues were expended in the country. (2) The statutes of the States prescribe certain branches for instruction in the school, whence it is fair to infer that the

people *will* that every child should have an opportunity to acquire all of these branches as the constituents of his common school education.

The country schools, then, the sole dependence of so large a proportion of the people, having failed of their purpose—to lead the children toward the possession of all their faculties, or, in Herbert Spencer's phrase, "to prepare for complete living"—it became manifest that something must be done to make them fulfil this purpose, that the law of the land might be complied with, and that the revenues of the people might yield a return. Grading was the expedient resorted to. It was conceived that an authoritative course of studies which should be generally enforced in the country schools was what was needed; and in spite of the numberless difficulties in the way, many townships, not a few counties, and several States have made efforts to secure uniformity of classification, as a rule, with steady progress towards success and most beneficial effects upon their schools. Though producing an unfortunate confusion, through the use of an old term in a new application, the process is generally called gradation, a graded course of studies being applied to each school though contained within but a single room.

This grading is analogous to the grading of schools in a city, but modified to suit the very different conditions. In the city a large number of children are to be provided for. About four hundred are assigned to an eight-room building. They are then parted into eight divisions, according to age and advancement (which will in the main correspond); each division is assigned to a separate room, in charge of a single teacher, and with a little transferring between neighboring buildings it can generally be brought about that the rooms will average fifty pupils each, and that all the pupils in a room will be of nearly the same age and will study the same subjects. The work thenceforward is simple enough. The teacher divides the pupils into two sections, hears each section recite twice in the forenoon and twice in the afternoon, with time to spare for general and special exercises, and thus within the school year carries all together over the subjects assigned to the grade. Next year these pupils are promoted to the next higher grade, and so are carried forward from year to year to the completion of the course.

The conditions that surround the country school are very different from these, and the problem is far more difficult. To a modest house of one room, to be taught by a single teacher, come thirty to sixty pupils 6 to 21 years of age, and representing in their advancement all the eight lower grades of the city schools, with perhaps several of the four grades of the city high school added, and the law permits them to demand instruction in from six to ten different subjects. Certainly the gradation of such a school so that so many pupils may be taught so many branches by one person is no easy task. It involves three steps: First, arranging a course of study; second, placing or classifying the pupils under the appropriate divisions of the course; third, providing for the promotion of pupils from one division to another.

Of these the first is the least difficult, for the general principles upon which a course of studies should be constructed are commonplace in pedagogical literature. The law prescribes the subject-matter, usually reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, and physiology—called often “the common branches.” Under certain circumstances one or more additional branches may be required, as algebra, Latin or German, or a science study. Let these subjects be outlined in a table which shall “state clearly and definitely the work intended,” shall divide the work into parts “arranged in their logical and psychological orders—considering the parts themselves in the order of dependence and the relation of the parts to the child in the order of mind-growth (I quote the terms of this recipe from a logical and psychological writer), and allot approximately the time for completing each part”—and you have your course of study.

The work of classifying the pupils is the teacher's difficulty, requiring nice discrimination, perseverance and firmness, and much tact in dealing with children and parents. This subject may be dismissed with the passing remark that, the readers being the basis of the course of study, the pupil's proficiency in reading, somewhat modified by his knowledge of arithmetic, will determine his grade; and that *even* grading is not to be expected or insisted upon, but every pupil must at first be placed in each branch just where his advancement in that branch entitles him to go. Time and circumstances will bring about an even grading, as far as such is necessary.

The third-mentioned consideration—*promotion*—is, in connection with the element of time, one of the serious obstacles to a course of study. The city schools give eight years to the common branches which we are dealing with. With a separate teacher for each grade, there is no difficulty in adapting the grades to the school years, promoting at the end of each year. Indeed, through the necessary alternation of study and recitation the teacher can manage two grades as easily as one, and the so-called half grades, with semi-annual promotions, result, in fact, though not in name, in sixteen grades.

In the country school it is not practicable to promote from grade to grade more than once each year, and even annual promotion is anything but a simple matter. The problem is this: If we allow eight years for the course, and promote each year, and give each grade four recitations a day, how many classes must our single teacher hear daily? Answer, thirty-two. Manifestly too many! So we must contrive to reduce the number of grades. Examining, then, the composition of the school, we find that a large proportion, approaching 30 percent., are the new pupils, near 6 years of age, who must be taught from the very beginning. Their number and the kind of instruction they require justify and necessitate forming them into a class by themselves. This will be the *first grade*, and the aim of the teacher will be to teach them to read in the First Reader, and to give them a start in numbers within the year.

They will require brief but frequent attention from the teacher, say five periods of ten minutes each. The next largest portion of the pupils, perhaps 25 per cent. of all, will be those who have made some progress in reading and numbers, and these will be formed into the *second grade*, to complete the Second Reader, with the accompanying exercises in language, spelling, and writing, and to continue numbers till prepared for primary arithmetic. This grade should have not less than four recitations of fifteen minutes each, if possible. Thus one-half or more of the school is provided for in less than two hours of the teacher's time. Scarcely three hours remain for the others, who represent six stages of progress, separated by intervals of a year. Divide them as well as possible into three divisions, designated as third, fourth, and fifth grades, corresponding to the readers of the same numbers. Thus if you allow four recitations for each grade you have reduced your recitations from thirty-two to twenty. These can be handled in five hours, allowing fifteen minutes to each, and thus a half hour will be saved for general exercises of the entire school, as writing, drawing, singing. Then go to work, hoping for the best, and see what happens. We will conceive that the work is entirely satisfactory, and that the skilful teacher produces all the results anticipated. At the beginning of the next school year the pupils of the first grade pass easily forward and become the second, the place they leave being filled by the incoming new pupils. The former second grade passes into the third. But what happens to the third? Remember that this is one of the three classes into which we divided the pupils scattered over the stages of six years; consequently two years are properly required for completing its work. Shall we then, after these have pursued their appropriate studies for one year, merge with them as many more pupils who are just one year behind them in all their studies? There seems to be nothing else to do. Let us then do it and manage as best we can. Our third grade, then, is the one which will give us most trouble. To reduce the difficulty to the minimum let us select out the pupils of the best natural parts and most apt in their studies and hasten their promotion to the fourth grade. Then carry on the work through the year, and see how we can manage at another period of change. This comes at the opening of the next school year, when the first grade becomes the second as before, and the second is merged into the third. The composite elements of the third must then be dealt with. Those pupils who have been in the grade two years are ready for promotion and will all be advanced to the fourth grade, except such as make positive failures in their examinations; while those who have been in this grade but one year will remain and be turned back a little, to accommodate the pace of the new members who have just come up from the class below. By this time the same mode of treatment will be necessary for the fourth grade, and a year later for the fifth. Finally your school will have all its grades in operation, and will make its promotions annually from each to the one next higher, the disturbance occur-

ring in the third, fourth, and fifth grades. This disturbance arises from annual promotions in biennial classes, which causes each section of pupils promoted to go through an experience of alternate hastening and retardation. Those who enter a new grade, being classed with pupils who have been in it a year, must be hastened as much as possible to keep up with these latter, and the next year must in turn be held back to accommodate the new additions. To meet this state of things methods of teaching will be followed which would not be necessary or permissible in the city graded school. The work of the third, fourth, and fifth grades will be done with the understanding that practically much of it is to be gone over twice by each pupil.

Such in theory and practice is the five-grade system of classification for a district school, the one adopted in Indiana, extensively followed in Illinois, and generally recognized, I believe, as the most practicable that has been tried. In its workings it is not entirely satisfactory, but it is an immense improvement over the old-fashioned ungraded school,—as much better as certainty is better than chance, though it be the certainty of but a moderate result against the chance of considerably more. In practice the promotion difficulty, so strongly colored above, seldom causes as great disturbance as its statement would suggest. No two country schools are alike, and the number of pupils in the several grades will vary indefinitely, as much as hands in a rubber of whist, though a decrease from the lowest to the highest will generally be found. Thus, usually, the extreme number of classes can be reduced by combining two grades in some subject, as geography or numbers, and often an entire grade may be unrepresented, thus giving more time for the others.

The work laid out for a teacher in the common branches would seem to be enough for one mortal; but with his school well graded a teacher of superior qualifications and physical endurance can handle three additional branches if one of these be book-keeping. Let us select as the other two algebra and Latin. The older pupils who pursue these studies, constituting a sixth grade, will rise early and do their morning “chores;” without waiting for their younger brothers and sisters, they will set out so as to reach the school at 8.30 and recite in algebra for half an hour. At 9 the school will assemble, and fifteen minutes will be spent in singing and in literary or devotional exercises. The sixth grade will receive no more attention from the teacher for the present, but will spend the time till recess in studying algebra and Latin. At 10.30 recess for a quarter of an hour. Then the sixth grade, our algebra class, gives an unbroken hour to work upon a set of books, during the last fifteen minutes of which all the other grades are occupied with slates and drawing-books, and the work of all is inspected by the teacher. Then follows fifteen minutes of writing in copy-books by the whole school, and noon is reached. At 1 o’clock the sixth grade recites Latin for half an hour, before the rest of the school assembles, then gives

another half hour to study of the same subject, and spends an hour and a half in a prescribed course of reading in juvenile histories, biography, travels, and fiction, the books for this purpose being supplied from the school libraries. At 3.30 such members of the sixth grade as are needed to help in the evening work of the farm may be dismissed, while others may remain to join the rest of the school in spelling or some kind of general exercises.

To the effective working of the course a daily programme of studies and recitations is essential, which should set forth on a chart exactly what each grade must do at every period of the day. This will prevent the waste of time by the pupils and the need of constant directions by the teacher.

To carry on the course of study the usual helps, stimulants, and appliances employed in cities are necessary—as examinations by the teacher and by the superintendent, teacher's records and reports, certificates and awards to pupils, and the graduation exercises on completion of the fifth grade. These last have proved a most powerful incentive to pupils and have wonderfully awakened the interest of parents and the public. Their influence in inducing regularity of attendance and continuance in the school surpasses anything that has yet been devised.

Thus far we have been considering a single school. But if gradation is a good thing, it is desirable that every country school should be graded. If this be effected it is almost necessary that all the schools of the same neighborhood be graded alike; there is great utility in uniformity within each county, and if so much can be attained it is certainly possible and in many ways desirable that all the counties of a State should adopt the same plan. The agencies through which this can best be effected are: (1) a superintendent of public instruction; (2) a State board of education; (3) county superintendents; (4) county boards of education; (5) local school boards for cities and towns, and boards or single trustees for townships; (6) school superintendents for cities, and school principals for towns and townships.

These several agencies afford a complete yet simple organization, of which each part is essential to the whole, and the whole and each part are essential to the general enforcement of a course of studies; for the grading of the country schools, as I apprehend the question, involves the whole subject of the administration of the system of public education, implying a control and supervision over the training of teachers in normal schools and institutes, determining their qualifications by examinations, assigning them to positions and regulating their compensation; over the organization and management of the schools generally, and the correlation of different kinds of schools among themselves; over the selection and supply of text-books and apparatus—a highly centralized but at the same time a perfectly flexible system.

But a discussion of these parts of the subject would cover the whole range of school supervision, which is beyond the province of this paper.

In conclusion, much is urged about individuality and the liberty of the teacher, while we seem in this paper to have cast a stereotype form, an inflexible mould, into which every school shall be run. But the danger is not here. In attempting the gradation of the country schools we do at best but "mete unequal laws" unto a lawless realm, and in happiest conditions we can hope for little more than to establish such a degree of order as may restrain inextinguishable liberty from waste and destruction.

The PRESIDENT: This convention having been favored by the authorities and people of Washington in many ways, the Chair will name Dr. Richard Edwards, of Illinois, Hon. Solomon Palmer, of Alabama, and Hon. L. S. Cornell, of Colorado, as a committee to report appropriate resolutions this afternoon.

The discussion of Superintendent Holcombe's paper was then commenced by Hon. O. B. JOHNSON, superintendent of schools, of Columbia, S. C., who said:

Ladies and Gentlemen, co-workers: I do not propose this morning to enter into a discussion of the details of the system of grading. That ground has been presented very fully and admirably covered by the paper of the gentleman from Indiana. I have, however, jotted down a few notes, which I will give for what they are worth in a few moments.

System is necessary to the proper conduct of any business of life, but a system without the spirit of sympathetic, intelligent direction pervading it, where that system has to do with the development of human character, of the immortal soul—such a system, I say, will not give good results or practical growth; it will produce discord instead of harmony, it will produce spiritual death instead of life. Therefore, in speaking of system, we wish to be understood that it is not in a procrustean sense. President White voices the sentiments of many of the leading educators of this country when he says that he hopes and expects to see established a national system of schools that will be worthy of this great Republic—a system where the child can start in the primary schools and advance regularly, step by step, up through the grammar school and high school into the college, and thence into a grand national university from all of the States.

It will be a long time before such a consummation, so devoutly to be wished, is brought about. In the mean time, however, the different States should turn their attention to the operation of their own individual systems. In most of the States, if not all, there is already a system of gradation in the schools from the lowest primary into the colleges, constituting a ladder upon the rounds of which the city boy may mount from the gutter of degradation to the pinnacles of usefulness and honor. No such provision has been made for the country boy and the country school. As a rule they are in a chaotic condition, and it seems to me that some graded course adaptable to the conditions peculiar to the several States is imperatively needed. In many States

the country teachers are changing constantly; and we have a constant change of text-books, all for the lack of a prescribed course of study, or if there is no change, then it is because the parents are unwilling to buy the books in order that their children may advance in study.

I have heard of children attending the country schools for five consecutive years under five consecutive teachers, and going over the same text-books for five consecutive times, without understanding the books much better the last time than they did the first.

Such senseless repetition, caused no doubt by this lack of a graded course of study, or of an intelligent outline by which to work, or in many cases by a lack of intelligence to follow any outline, is not only disappointing but is benumbing and deadening to the children. With a system of grading for the country schools by which teachers and pupils could work with an end and an aim they thereby would have their faculties quickened and strengthened.

A purposeless, aimless man accomplishes nothing of consequence here. We cannot expect much of a purposeless or aimless system.

The many difficulties, however, which confront the Southern State or county superintendent at the very threshold of his attempt to introduce grades into his school, seem almost insurmountable. The inability of the parents or unwillingness of the parents to buy the necessary text-books; the short session of from two and a half or three months a year, between which the pupils forget what has been taught them; the poor pay, and, therefore, the poor teaching which is provided (some teachers get no more than \$10 a month in the country districts); the prejudice against everything new that is to-day so common in country districts—and, I must say that is not confined to country districts alone—the clinging to that which is old; the so-called conservatism, even for the old log house with a slit for a window and with cracks between the logs for ventilation; or, if it be a “howling school,” where the teacher compels the children to study aloud for the reason, as he asserts, that if they do not study aloud you cannot tell whether they are studying or not—these are some of the schools and some of the difficulties. Some of them may exist in greater or less degree, but all of them do exist. It would seem, then, that we should first bend ourselves to overcome these difficulties and then turn our attention to the gradation. Judging from my own State of South Carolina, I should say that heroic efforts are being made in the South to correct these evils. We have, for instance, a population, according to the census of 1880, of whites, 391,105; colored, 604,332; school population, whites, 101,189; colored, 180,495, and an enrolment in proportion. Now, in our State we have a constitutional 2-mill tax for the schools. Many communities have levied a local tax, or supplemental State tax.

Columbia, the capital of the State, with a population equally divided between the white and colored, has put upon herself, in addition to this constitutional 2-mill tax, an additional local tax of 2 mills to the dol-

lar, making in all 4 mills to the dollar, or 40 cents to the \$100, for school purposes, exclusively for the equal educational advantage of all children, without regard to race or color. The burden, however, is greater than can be carried by the South without some assistance. I think it is time that Southern men were announcing and declaring that far and wide. National aid is woefully needed, and, whatever may be said to the contrary, the people desire it.

If the question were put to a vote in South Carolina to-day, with the understanding that local management would not be interfered with by the General Government, it would be carried with an overwhelming majority. South Carolina and other Southern States have no school lands, no school reserve fund, and a population half of which have little property to pay taxes. The South, however, has tried to do her whole duty to all of her citizens. A great educational revival is in progress throughout that section. She is straining every nerve to meet the great demands made upon her for the education of her children, colored as well as white; but, alas, she must strive in vain to accomplish the Herculean task, self imposed, unless a generous, helping hand is extended by the sister States, in Congress assembled, who are, and should be, equally concerned in the obliteration of illiteracy from every corner of this land by the aid of the common school, of which we are so proud. I say they ought to be equally concerned as those States in which this illiteracy unfortunately exists. Here I must say that it has warmed the heart of every true Southern man, or rather, I should say, of every true American, to see with what sympathy and unanimity New England and the North have taken to themselves and their representatives an appreciation of the difficulties under which the South has labored, and their readiness to meet these difficulties as dangers threatening a common country.

The recent response from all parts of this country to relieve suffering and loss occasioned by that terrible convulsion of nature in the State in which I live, is another link in the golden chain which is now binding the people of this glorious country in the bond of brotherly love. An era of good feeling and mutual esteem, as is shown by the reception of our Southern members here, and on every occasion when such occasion offers, has dawned upon this fair land of ours. God grant that through the agency of universal education, and all other good agencies, it may quickly brighten into the full glory of noonday.

Hon. H. C. SPEER, State superintendent of public instruction, Topeka, Kansas: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: I labor under the misfortune of listening to the last part of that admirable address, and for that reason you will pardon me if I am unable to discuss the paper itself pertinently. The subject is one in which I have taken great interest, and which I am exceedingly gratified to find has a place on the programme of this Department. I believe that the question of grading the work of the country school is one which belongs to the practical development of the State

departments of public instruction in this country. It is to these departments, and not to the State organizations, that the work of systematizing the teaching of the country schools must be trusted. It is through the State superintendents, with the co-operation of the various county superintendents, that it is to be accomplished. I think there is no question about this. I feel assured that the discussion of the question by those gentlemen who go into institutions through our several States and give instruction upon the art of teaching and upon the practical management of schools can largely aid in the work. I have very little to say this morning upon the question of whether a grading of country schools is a possible thing. I have settled this long ago. I think it is a practical undertaking. I am here to explain briefly this statement. I do not wish to compare the work of the country schools with that of the city schools, and the man who is accustomed to managing city schools, who goes into a country teachers' institute of 150 people, assembled from the various rural districts, and undertakes to tell them that they can manage and teach country schools as he has done the city schools, simply announces himself as an impractical man. But there are possibilities that may be brought before teachers in the country. As the gentleman who read this paper said, the average teacher of the country school is not a man or woman upon whom you can depend for the development of a course of study. That is why I say it belongs to the State superintendent. Here is the comparison between a country and a city school—we can give to the average country teacher an interpretation of that misty term, geography. What is geography? What is arithmetic or grammar? You could take the teacher who has come out of the country school house to teach or who is a graduate of a high school in town. That person is a very good candidate for a first-grade certificate in a country school, or for a second-grade certificate. Do you expect him, without assistance, with but an occasional visit from a county superintendent, or circular from the State superintendent, to go into that school and develop for those pupils the elements of geography teaching? You cannot expect this. The superintendent of a city school does not leave to his teachers this solution. You do not allow any teacher in a city school to determine what grammar is.

You bind your teachers pretty closely to the very principles of the teaching of grammar. The country school teacher is left an absolute monarch in his school. He is often there without even a printed guide. The average school boy knows and decides for himself what he is going to study. He announces, "I am going to study arithmetic and grammar this winter," and that settles it. I have visited country schools where, upon asking the teacher how many pupils were studying geography, he had to determine by counting up how many were studying it. There was a lack of classification. Now, what do we ask when we talk about this problem? We ask a course of study, a suggestion to that

grand army of young men and women who are ambitious, who are conscientious, and who want to do good teaching. We ask for a guide. I want that young man to know and be able to say to his pupils, "When you have accomplished such and such work, I can say to you, you have a pretty good knowledge of arithmetic." You ask a country boy what he is studying, and he will tell you he is studying the readers. At the age of fourteen he has been through the arithmetic three times. At the age of twenty-one he will go to school with the same books, and there is no one to tell him that there is something above and beyond that point. There is no one to say to him, "I want to teach you this and this, and when we get there we will take the next step. I do not want to keep on grinding over and over again." Here you let the child come in when he has forgotten all he once knew, and you ask him a few questions and he answers them, and you think you have accomplished a great deal, and after all you have to begin at the beginning again. It is a tiresome and monotonous revolving around and around and around, a constant revolution and very little progress. Now, what is the first idea with regard to grading a country school? It is to set before the country school teacher an objective point. He will set the children's mind upon this point. The child is ambitious.

Immediately the practical application of this question comes in undertaking to introduce a system of gradation into the country school, which is an impossibility. I think there ought to be a printed outline of study and instruction in every State of the Union. There ought to be one in every county; and I do not care whether in the same State the course of study is uniform or not, or whether it shall be one that this Department shall adopt; but I do care that it should be a course of study that should develop into something practical, that will do genuine good and will avoid a great waste of time and energy. I would simply suggest, Mr. President, with regard to the practical development of the question, that I see Mr. Macdonald is here, and he will doubtless give us some of the practical experiences in our State.

Hon. JOHN MACDONALD, Topeka, Kans.: Looking over this programme I find myself like a private on the battle-field. The colonel and the captain have taken to the woods, one or two of the superior officers are left, and the private feels a reluctance in coming to the front. A private, however, has one great consolation—that he is not likely to have a fearful and wonderful sketch of himself in the morning papers. I believe it was Dr. Samuel Johnson who said, on hearing that an acquaintance was going to write his biography, "That adds new terrors to death." I think the sort of sketches we have been having adds new terrors to the National Association.

I suppose that a great many of you look at this subject under discussion from the elevation of your great city schools in a sort of theoretical manner. We unfortunates have to grapple with it every day, and to carry on a hand-to-hand fight, and it is to us an intensely practical

question. The necessity for grading country schools is not so apparent to you as it is to us, and we are required to carry out these details. Pupils are promoted from book to book and from school to school at the sweet wills of parents, teachers, and school officers, and in even many cases the pupils promote themselves. Studies are pursued in a sort of circular manner. The pupil begins with a book at the beginning of the term; he goes to a certain page in the spring; he comes back, begins at the beginning of the book, and goes to the same place in the fall; he comes back next spring and begins again, and goes to the same point or a few pages beyond; and so goes on and on in a circular way, to my personal knowledge, for eight or ten years. In many States of this Union the condition of things is much the same as when there was no King in Israel.

While it is apparent that the necessity for grading exists, the more I study this question the more I am impressed by Herbert Spencer's words, "a system of education grows, it is not made;" and its growth is insensible. While the necessity for training schools is apparent, the difficulties are almost insurmountable in some States. You have no idea of what difficulty they have in carrying out courses of study in the States that are cursed with the independent school district system. I suppose some of them—most of them—have that system in their respective States. An independent school district is a tract of country from a quarter to twenty miles in area which elects its own officers, adopts its own text books, selects its own teachers, and is responsible to no one, and in harmony with nothing. In some of the counties of our State we have 267, 335, and 458 school officers, and in one county 558, enough men to capture a fort. Before the county superintendent can carry out the details of any particular course of study it is necessary to secure the approval, the co-operation, of 558 persons. I want to say to you that some of these persons cannot read or write. We have been told here time and again that we must not distrust the people. I do not distrust the people, but I have a deep and strong distrust of any system of education which makes it possible for three or four illiterate men to select teachers for my children. Various efforts have been made to establish courses of study, but owing to these difficulties which I have mentioned they have had but partial success. In my own county I was compelled to begin at the wrong end of the course. I thought it better to begin there than not at all.

Now, here is another difficulty. In order to have any uniformity in laying out a course of study the school terms should begin on the same day and close on the same day. We have 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9 months; school terms begin every month from the 1st of September to November, and close from the 1st of February to the 1st of July. How is it possible to secure uniformity? Mirabeau, the French statesman, said, "Impossible! Do not mention that word." If he had tried to construct uniformity out of our school system he would not have spoken so hastily.

But, notwithstanding this, we are trying to do our best and hoping for better things. The best course of study that I have examined is that adopted by Mr. Speer and now enforced in our State to a more or less extent. This course of Mr. Speer has that flexibility which we need in any course, and that we must have in country schools. The course of study in a country school must have elasticity to it. Set measurements have been tried and proven failures, and we want a course of study such as outlined here by Mr. Holcombe and such as Mr. Speer has prepared.

Such a course is practicable; but in order to make it successful we need to centralize the control of the schools by widening out such a system as I have mentioned, and by having local control in one or three men, and having a county board of education which can prescribe and enforce uniformity to a given course of study.

As it is now the enforcement of things of this sort depends upon particular individuals. As men die, another government will arise which knows not Joseph, and probably will know nothing else, and all of the work will be scattered to the four winds of heaven.

Our system of grading country schools should have the sanction and force of law. Several years ago I announced that I would hold examinations at the close of the school year—that is, if it were possible to find out when the close of the school year came.

I took an average, and called an examination some time in April as a kind of experiment, to see how it worked, and I was so satisfied with the success of the experiment that I have continued the work ever since. I have now reduced it to a system, and we hold examinations in every township in our county, there being eleven of them. Questions are sent out under seal, committees then hold examinations, the papers are then returned to me, and I do the grading and issue the diplomas. Last year we issued seventy.

Now, one good result of this system was this: If I had a piece of chalk I could illustrate it better. I believe in object lessons. [Going to the blackboard and illustrating.] Now, I draw a line. That is the way studies are pursued in our country schools. The lines may represent geography, grammar, &c. The result that I have found in having this examination at the close of the year is this—it creates interest in every school in the county, and naturally directs them to the common school course, because they know that in order to obtain the average required they must have at least 60 per cent., and they must not fall below it in any one average, because they know that in order to pass this examination they will have to obtain it. I find, also, that the parents take an interest in the work of the children, so that there was an objective point made, and I am so satisfied with the work that I propose to continue it. As I stated before, while this work is for particular individuals, if we would have anything like complete success we must

have an authoritative source from which the course should emanate, and this should have the force of law.

After us there will arise superintendents whose shoes we are not worthy to lace, and I say now for their speedy coming let us all hope and pray and work.

Hon. M. A. NEWELL, State superintendent of public instruction, Baltimore, Md.: I speak with great reluctance on this occasion, as on all occasions. It is only a feeling of duty that brings me up here to-night, with a hope that the sketcher will not be around.

It is something like fourteen years since I commenced preaching the gospel of a uniform schedule for country as well as for city schools. When I say the same I mean the same not in degree but in kind. Some time ago I went through all the counties of our State, gathered the teachers around me, offered to them a uniform schedule, explained the nature of it and the advantages, and for two long years my voice was as the voice of one crying in the wilderness. There was no response, except "It is impracticable; it is impossible; we cannot yet do in the country what you do in the city." The best thing, as my friend from Topeka has told us, is to bring in the strong arm of the law. So the State board of education issued a schedule, and by law required it to be enforced in every school of every county in the State. We are fortunate in not being troubled with the independent school district.

We have only one, a little school district of about 450,000, the city of Baltimore, the only independent school district in the State. We are fortunate again in having superintendents who do not come in every year or every two years, but whose terms of office are practically for life or good behavior, or some very sudden turn up in politics. We have one gentleman who has been superintendent of his county for twenty-one years. We have now, what we have not always had, a tenure of office on the part of the teachers which is practically for life or during good behavior. The order upon the subject is simply this—that a teacher once appointed legally retains his office until he resigns or is dismissed. The power of prompt dismissal is still retained but is seldom exercised. With a uniform body of superintendents and a fairly uniform body of teachers there is not much difficulty in having a uniform course of study. The county superintendent makes quarterly, or half yearly or yearly, a uniform set of questions for his county. These are answered by the teachers and the result reported to him. Then we have diplomas for those who have passed the grammar grades and others for the high school grades.

I shall add only a single observation in reference to what the superintendent of Kansas said when he seemed to insinuate that the country schools are at a disadvantage as compared with the city schools. I have not found this disadvantage. I find that although nominally in the list of graded studies your pupil from the high school of the city is ahead of the high school pupil from the country, and probably of grammar school pupils of the same grades. but when they get to work you can get

more work from the country boy or girl than from the city boy or girl. I do not know that they will pass as good an examination, but I do say when you get to work that the best work is done by the country children.

Hon. J. W. HOLCOMBE, Indianapolis, Ind.: I should like to call out a former superintendent from Indiana whom I am pleased to find here. I am quite sure that the convention would like to hear from Mr. M. A. Mess.

Mr. M. A. MESS, Washington, D. C.: *Fellow-teachers*: I can stand before this audience with entire impunity from the sketchtaker, because I am a Government clerk, and the Government clerk is not noticed by the sketchtaker or anybody else particularly.

For five years I was actively engaged in the work of superintending the schools of a county in Indiana, and I can speak from experience on the subject of gradation. The point made by the State superintendent of Kansas, that the course of study should emanate from the State superintendent, I think is not well taken, from the fact that the State superintendent is too far removed from the immediate working force of the county. The work of gradation must emanate from the working force in the county. For four years we agitated in our county the work of gradation against all objections. We found that advocating it did not help it along; we had to take hold of it ourselves and push it forward. The first thing we did in our county was to prepare not only a course of study, but brief and pointed directions how to put that course of study into practical operation in the school room. The course of study that we prepared at that time of course was not based upon experience. We had to take what we considered a practical plan, and although we did not labor under the difficulties that some of the speakers here have mentioned of having an independent district, &c., yet we had all of the other difficulties that are common to country schools. The children are distributed over wide territories, they have difficulty in attending school regularly, the terms of the schools are varied from three to ten months, each beginning everywhere from September to December, and yet we had to make our course of study and the practical operation of it so flexible that it will satisfy all these difficulties to a certain extent. What was to be done? We had to bring order out of chaos. Our board divided the work that was expected to be done in the district schools. The mastery of the common school branches had to be so distributed over the proper length of time and properly adjusted, so that each pupil could complete the course at that time. I think, too, that our course of study was adapted for the State. There were fifty different systems from different counties, each having a different course of study and plan of operation, yet all reaching forward and tending to accomplish the end in view. From all of these courses of study which emanated, not from the State superintendent, not from the central authority of the State, but from each county superintendent and the teachers, we built up a harmonious whole.

In the States where this has not been accomplished, I hold that the work must begin with the teacher. If your teaching force is not educated up to the point that the work of the pupil must be reduced to a system, your teacher is not ready for the work of grading a school. The county superintendent, in all States where there is one, should be the leader in this matter, and should not only arrange the course of study but should prepare a hand-book to put into the hands of the teacher that will guide him in the arrangement of his work and in carrying it out. This book need not bind the teacher to any particular system of instruction, or to any particular method or plan; it should simply be placed in his hands to form a general guide to lead him in the right direction, to put his schools upon such a basis as will bring them together, draw them to a converging line, and be able to build them up on a classified basis. A course of study issued by the State authority is very good theoretically, but you will find that the teacher, the country teacher, will always look upon it as something which is handed down from a person who does not come into practical contact with the work. Therefore, educate your teachers and your teaching force to the necessity of reducing the work of the district schools to a system of arranging the work of the children in such way as to make a systematic whole. You will find that you will accomplish more by beginning at home and working from the immediate source than you will by commencing at the top and working downwards.

Hon. B. S. MORGAN, State superintendent of public instruction, Charleston, W. Va.: I do not rise to discuss this subject, but to make a statement in regard to Monongalia County, West Virginia, and its public schools, when we undertook the grading of the schools in that county. The good work which was set on foot by Mr. Wait met with serious obstruction by his going out of office by a change in the law, abolishing the office of county superintendent. That lasted for two years. At the next session of the Legislature the law was again changed and required the superintendent to visit the schools. At that time I was elected county superintendent, and prepared an outline course for the schools that has been in operation ever since, and is to-day. I am glad to say that twenty counties in the State have these published outlines. You will see from this that it is not a dead letter in West Virginia, but we have the same obstructions in the way that we have everywhere.

The work is going forward, and we expect to try at our next State educational association to prepare a plan and try to have it adopted at the next session of the Legislature for the entire State. In this purpose we have some facilities. We have a one-book series for the entire State, and we think that this will be one facility towards the adoption of a course of study for the entire State. We are heartily in sympathy with the work in West Virginia, and expect to push it forward until we have a course of study for the entire State.

Hon. A. G. LANE, superintendent of schools, Cook County, Illinois: Just one word. I wish to call attention to this—that in every State there is an average, an expected requirement of work for every country school under the State law. If there can be an outline prepared and issued from the State department covering this minimum of requirement of the State law, accompanied by suggestions that are helpful, that are simply to direct, so that from this department to every county there can be issued this general outline, and upon that outline superintendents may have the power to enlarge or limit, or improve as the necessities of the case may require, we have then the foundation that the State law demands, and with such an outline as spoken of in the paper of Mr. Holcombe as required in Indiana, giving perfect freedom for the superintendent to enlarge or limit, as he may desire, and as the needs of his school may require, we have found the means by which you may reach all of the counties of the State, those counties that are neglected in their supervision, and when the State superintendent is in harmony with the great movement to reach all the schools and all the children, to arouse public sentiment and assist the county superintendents in enforcing this outline, in directing the educational work, and in arousing public sentiment in regard to the education of the children, then we have laid the foundation that can be built upon everywhere, an outline that can be made to suit the necessities of South Carolina at the present time, or of North Carolina, which will be different from that which is required in the States of New York and Pennsylvania. So, Mr. President, it seems to me that the work is progressing. Let us hope that there may be this outline embracing the minimum of requirement of the law as presented by the State department, leaving the county superintendent free to act upon it as the necessities may require.

Upon the conclusion of Mr. Lane's remarks, at 12.45 o'clock, the convention adjourned.

EIGHTH SESSION.

The convention was called to order at 1.30 o'clock, Thursday, March 17, 1887.

The committee appointed to take under consideration the paper of Dr. Andrew J. Rickoff, on "A Teacher's Certificate, County, City, State, and National," through their chairman, Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, presented the following report:

The committee to whom were referred Mr. Rickoff's paper on the certificates of teachers, respectfully report:

1. Inasmuch as four-fifths or more of the teachers in the rural district schools of almost, if not all, the States are mere apprentices in the business of teaching, and inasmuch as tact in government and skill in the work of instruction is as much needed by the teacher as literary and scientific attainments, it is clear—

(1) That successive examinations of beginners should be directed to induce improvement in the branches of study required and in the art of teaching

(2) That the certificates of this class of teachers should be limited to six months, or at most one school year ;

(3) That they should be limited to the territorial jurisdiction of the board or other authority by which they were issued ; and—

(4) That when the examining authority is a county superintendent of schools he should himself hold a first-grade teacher's certificate, and when it consists of a board of examiners it should contain one or more persons who hold such certificates.

2. Teachers who have had five years of successful experience and hold first-grade certificates should be relieved of the necessity of periodical examinations on obtaining State certificates from a State board of examiners, or other State authority appointed by law for that purpose.

3. State certificates should be valid throughout the State in which they are issued, and should be accepted as valid in other States under such conditions as may be established by law in the respective States.

4. The representatives of the several States in the Department of Superintendence may facilitate the policy herein recommended by considering at this, or subsequent meetings, whether the conditions of this reciprocity should be based on equal conditions of certification in the several States, or whether the certificates of one State should be accepted by other States for their face value.

5. The profession of teaching should fix its own standard independent of the State (and without regard to service in the public schools), and this committee would respectfully suggest the consideration by this Department and by all State teachers' associations of the practical means by which this may be realized.

Respectfully,

B. H. HINSDALE.
FRED. M. CAMPBELL.
W. N. BARRINGER.
RICHARD EDWARDS.
M. A. NEWELL.

The resolutions were adopted.

The president then introduced Hon. WARREN EASTON, State superintendent of public education in Louisiana, who read the following paper :

THE BEST SYSTEM OF STATE SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

Mr. President and Gentlemen: It is not the purpose of this paper to present any dogmatic views as to the "best system of State supervision," but simply to make it a basis of discussion. I feel that this is the most important question that the convention has had before it, and one upon which time and careful study should be bestowed. I believe that upon a proper State supervision depends the perfect development of the common school system of the country. As all great bodies move and are controlled systematically, so should the educational work of a State be so systematized as to move in perfect unison ; all departments should so fit one to another that there would be no adverse friction. To establish this ideal system has been the desire of our educators since schools have been founded, and, possibly, before it is perfected as many more years will have rolled around as have come and gone since the establishment of the free school system.

I believe that to-day every State and Territory has made the proper beginning towards the establishment of a system of State supervision.

Whether any one has succeeded in developing a perfectly satisfactory one I cannot say. I am sure that such is not the case in my State, for there exists constant dissatisfaction caused by the difference of opinion as to the authority of the chief school officer.

Every State should have a bureau of education, the chief officer of which should be the State superintendent of public instruction. This bureau of education could be called the State board of education, or any other appellation, provided it carried with it the proper signification. This State board of education should be clothed with absolute legislative power. The powers and duties of this board should be clearly defined by law, as follows: To prepare rules and regulations for the government of the common schools of the State, which should be adopted and enforced under the authority and direction of the county, city, or division superintendents in all cases where the school trustees have failed to enforce the same. It should, from time to time, select and adopt a proper course of study and a suitable list of text-books for all the common schools in the State, which text-books the trustees or directors of the various cities, towns, or districts should use in their respective cities, towns, or districts; provided said books be not changed oftener than once in four years. The said board of education should recommend suitable works for district libraries, and such standard works and professional aids for the teachers as it deems proper on educational science and the art of teaching.

The board should have the power to require the trustees or superintendents to report everything that, in its judgment, is necessary to further the interests of the common schools of the State.

The board should prepare for district school libraries a list of books suitable for such libraries, which might, from time to time, be amended, revised, and enlarged, and to prepare uniform rules and regulations for the government of same.

Absolute control being granted to this board of education, the important question arises, who should compose this board? I think the Governor and attorney-general should be members; the first, because he is the executive of the State, and directly interested in the success of every department of the State; the second, because he is required to be the legal adviser of the board. The State superintendent should be the executive of the board. The other members of the board should be the division superintendents.

The State should be divided into divisions, according either to area or population; over each division a superintendent should be placed; this officer could be called a division superintendent, or an assistant State superintendent; and should be, by virtue of his office, a member of the State board of education.

The General Assembly having determined how many divisions are necessary for a proper supervision of the State, it will become the duty of the State superintendent to present to the Governor the names of those

he desires to be appointed as division superintendents ; the Governor, then, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, should appoint one division superintendent for each division, said person to be a resident of the division for which he is appointed.

The division superintendents, so appointed and chosen, should take the oaths required of State officers, and should hold office for four years, or in accordance with the constitutional term of office of the State of which they are residents.

The board so constituted should hold one regular annual meeting at the capital of the State, in the office of the State superintendent of public instruction, and such other meetings as occasion required.

Division superintendents should have general supervision of all common schools within their respective divisions, subject to all rules and regulations passed by the State board of education.

They should examine and certify to the qualifications of all applicants within their respective divisions, unless such applicants hold certificates from the State board of examiners. They should receive and transmit all reports from the board of school trustees to the State superintendent. They should make all arrangements for meeting teachers who are desirous of being examined, and for the transaction of all other business within their jurisdiction.

They should have the power to revoke the certificate of any teacher in the division for any reason that would have justified the withholding thereof when the same was given. They should, annually, make a report to the State board of education, containing a digest of the reports made to them by the local school authorities, and such other matters as they should be desired to report by the said local school authorities, and such as they, themselves, may think pertinent and material, and especially such as will show the condition of the schools under their charge.

They should, at all times, conform to the instructions of the State board of education as to matters within their jurisdiction, and should serve as the organs of communication between the State board of education, the State superintendent of public instruction, and the district boards of trustees. They should furnish the district boards of trustees or teachers with all blanks, circulars, and other communications which are to them directed, and should entertain and decide all appeals taken from the decisions of district boards of school trustees, which should be final, unless the appeal be carried to the State board of education before the expiration of thirty days. They should organize and conduct, once in each year, at such time, after conference with the State superintendent of public instruction, as may be designated, a teachers' institute, at some central locality, which is easy of access and where teachers will receive the encouragement of hospitality.

In this work the superintendents should be aided by the professors of the State normal school, or some practical teachers appointed by the State superintendent of public instruction.

They should also encourage and assist at teachers' associations, to be convened frequently, urging the attendance of the teachers, for the purpose of mutual conference and instruction in their duties.

They should also report the number of private schools, academies, and colleges; the number of pupils, and all other information, in such form as the State superintendent may prescribe, so as to present a full view of their educational facilities.

State superintendent of public instruction.—The State superintendent of public instruction should be a constitutional officer, elected at the general election with other constitutional officers; his term of office should be for four years; his salary, commensurate with the dignity and requirements of the office; his office should be at the seat of government, in which should be filed all papers, reports, and public documents transmitted to him by the division superintendents of the several divisions, and by the boards of trustees, each year separately, and hold the same in readiness to be exhibited to the Governor, or to a committee from either house of the General Assembly, at any time when required, and should be required to keep a fair record of all matters pertaining to his office.

He should make a full report to the General Assembly at each session, which should embrace a statement of the condition of the common schools throughout the State, the number of pupils attending in the various towns and districts, and the condition of the public school libraries; also, a statement of all rules and regulations adopted by the State board of education, and whatever suggestions he may deem it expedient to offer upon the efficient working of the school law.

The State superintendent should be charged with the general supervision of all the division superintendents, and all the common, high, and normal schools of the State; and should see that the school system, as early as practicable, is carried into effect and put into uniform operation. With a general view to these special duties, he should meet the division superintendents at least once in each year, in each division, at such time and place as he may appoint, giving due notice of each meeting; and it should be the duty of the division superintendents to attend each meeting, the object of which should be to accumulate valuable facts relative to common schools, to compare views, discuss principles, and, in general, to listen to all communications and suggestions, and to enter into all discussions relative to compensation of teachers, their qualifications, branches taught, method of instruction, text-books, divisions, libraries, apparatus, and all other matters embraced in the common school system. He should visit such schools as he may have it in his power to do, and see the manner in which they are conducted. He should cause to be printed and distributed all acts bearing upon educational legislation, together with all forms, regulations, and instructions, among the division superintendents. He should also prepare and have distributed to the several division superintendents a

form of certificate in blank to be issued to teachers, and all other blanks found necessary to be used in carrying on the school system. He should make a report to the General Assembly and State board of education of the condition and needs of the schools of the State, annually or biennially.

The State superintendent and the division superintendents should be constituted a board of examiners, which should examine all teachers applying for State certificates. Said board of examiners should hold its session at the State capital once in each year, and the session should continue as many days as necessary to complete the work. The State superintendent, with the necessary number of division superintendents to make a majority, should be required to sign each certificate issued before it became valid.

They should not grant a certificate to any applicant until they became satisfied that he was possessed of a good moral character, a knowledge of the branches of study required in the common school course, together with physiology and hygiene, and a fair ability to teach and govern a school. The certificate should be good for five years, and if the holder teaches the five years continuously the said certificate should be renewed without subjecting him to another examination.

The State board of examiners should be instructed to recognize the diploma of the State normal or normals, and to issue a certificate to the holder without further examination.

These, gentlemen, are some of my views on what is necessary to develop the "best system of State supervision." I think the subject so important that, after the discussion, a committee should be appointed to which it should be referred, with instructions to report upon it at the meeting of the Department in Chicago.

Discussion on Mr. Easton's paper was opened by Dr. RICHARD EDWARDS, State superintendent of public instruction, of Illinois, who said :

Mr. President and Ladies and Gentlemen: The able and exhaustive paper to which you have listened will make it unnecessary for me to give anything like a complete statement of the duties and powers of those officers whose duties and powers we are discussing—State superintendents of public instruction. I shall, therefore, be permitted to confine myself to a few of the points which, it seems to me, in the present exigency of our school history, require to be emphasized. The millennium is coming, and we shall have all these things to which our friend from the South has so ably adverted some day. We shall be kings and queens in the country one of these days, but for the present we are in the wilderness, we are only travelling towards the promised land, and I will call your attention to some of the things that we need just now on our way towards the results we seek.

In the first place, let me say that it is the duty of the State superintendent to collect statistics. We need them. We want to know some-

thing about the onward march of the cause; to know how it stands this year as compared with last year; to see whether there is greater attention given to the necessities of different school communities. Are these parents more considerate of their duties towards their children and more careful of the attendance of children upon the schools? Are these taxpayers becoming more and more aware of the worth of the property on which they pay taxes of this institution of the public school, and are they, therefore, growing more liberal? And so with many other things. We need to know how things are going, and for that purpose we need the gathering of statistics from different parts of the State under the care and eye of this officer. I want to say that there is a point where statistics had better be dropped. Statistics are not a panacea for all the ills that flesh is heir to. We may go crazy over these things even. There is an old adage that we used to hear in my boyhood, that "Figures won't lie," but then you and I know that they will. They are just as unreliable as men are, and so in gathering statistics you must have an eye to what is real. There are a great many things that it is our moral duty not to know in this world. If I burden myself with all the things that are within my reach I should be crushed by the weight of my attainments, and I do not want to run the risk of it. And so there are many things that I leave, and I think it would be wise for us all only to collect those things that are applicable to, and that bear directly upon, the progress of our work. A State superintendent and all other State officers need to know the facts that can be used in presenting the claims of the free school to the pupil. Do I know of a district of country where they are growing lax, where the amount of money is failing, where the attendance is falling off? For in some of the school districts of this country I know there is a diminution of the school appropriations. Do I know where the attendance is falling off? Here is the thing I want to know. I want the figures for it in black and white, so that we can hold it up as a warning where a warning is needed. It is astonishing how much knowledge there is in this world. The State of Illinois has a great many people who do not know the provisions of the school law. Every day I have letters in regard to trifling matters. There are large numbers of copies of the school law printed and circulated, but they know nothing of it. They expect to write letters to me and to have their attention directed to the particular sections of the code, and so on. That is one of the things a superintendent has to do.

Another thing is to aid the Legislature by the aid of reasonable influences. For one I am not willing to have even an improvement in the school law effected except on the basis of a conviction in the minds of the Legislature and of the public. I want to know the ground I am standing on. I know several things in respect to which I would like to have the law changed, but I know that for some of them the public sentiment is not ready, and the effect of that would be disastrous to the free school enterprise, and so, therefore, I want legislation helped where

it can be reasonably accomplished, and where such changes, properly presented, will be sanctioned by the public.

In the next place a State superintendent ought to assist the county superintendents. The plan of my excellent friend from Louisiana would make it possible for the State superintendent to wield whatever influence was necessary. This has not arrived in my State as yet. Every county superintendent is as independent as a king. I can only reach him by obtaining his sympathy. I find, however, among that body of men, 102 of them, that there is an excellent spirit. I think there has been a great advance in our State on that subject. The character of the county superintendent has improved, and I do not know that that body of men is unprepared for anything that could reasonably be presented and which it saw to be for the advantage of the great interests of the public school. It is a wise thing for meetings to be held in divisions of the State, for the State to be divided into divisions, and for the county superintendents in each division to be asked to meet the State superintendent and discuss the questions that pertain to the progress of education, the application of the school laws, the question of the qualification of the teachers, and the instrumentalities to be employed to secure better attendance and other good results. I shall issue circulars, I think, to the county superintendents in our State, and ask them to meet, some in the northern part of the State, some in the central part, and in the different sections of the State, and in that way I shall hope to meet all the superintendents in the State of Illinois, and to take counsel with them in regard to the progress of education. This is one of the duties of the State superintendent.

Another of his duties is to do what he can for the improvement of the country schools. I heard a talk upon that this morning; I heard some excellent things, and I listened with a great deal of interest, for I said this is exactly in my line. So I listened to the suggestions that were made, and I am sure that I shall go home the wiser for having heard that discussion. A great deal has been done for these schools in my State. There has been at least one manual prepared, containing a course of study and suggestions, which has been very largely used in different counties of the State with the very best possible results. I hold it to be my duty, as the constitutional officer of the State, to do what I can to carry forward that work, in order that we may avoid the difficulties to which reference was made this morning, difficulties arising from the lack of understanding between the different schools. We want, therefore, to avoid these difficulties, and for that purpose the State superintendent himself ought to become as thoroughly familiar with the condition of the country schools as it is possible for him to be. The great cities are able to take care of themselves. The great city of Chicago, for instance, in our State, does not care whether there is a State superintendent of education or not. They have good schools and means to carry them forward, public sentiment to sustain them, and wisdom

to do the best thing for their schools. It is not necessary that personal attention should be given to them on the part of the State officer; but the country schools, where men are moving along year after year, are not so much shaken up by the agitation of the time that disturbs other sections. These are the places where something ought to be done, and where the local influences ought to be helped in support of the free schools. Here is where the superintendent ought to make himself personally felt. I do not think it is wise, but I will just add a few words more.

Another thing that the superintendent ought to do is to assist in the conducting of teachers' institutes. I have not a particle of control over the teachers' institutes of our State.

I cannot dictate to them. The county superintendents suggest the subjects, and they appoint the time; they are entirely under the control of these officers; but I can go and show my good-will at these institutes. I can go and speak to those county superintendents and other officers, and it is my duty to do it.

I want to say one other word which seems to me to be very true and somewhat important. The State superintendent of public instruction ought, to the best of his ability, to do what he can to improve the preparation of teachers, to improve their professional preparation, and to increase the usefulness of those who have a profession proper. He can only do this by using his influence; he cannot order anything, and in our State we do not believe in central authority. All his influence, whatever it may be, ought to be exercised on the side of a better professional preparation in the teachers that are employed in the schools. I tell you, my friends, we have a great many instrumentalities here. We have had presentations here to-day and yesterday of ways and means for advancing the cause of education by means of studies, by means of contrivances and machinery, but these are only outward forms.

I want to tell you that after all they are dead things. There is just one live thing in this work of education, and that is a live teacher, fit for the work in which he is engaged. Therefore, the man who is in office does the very best that can be done for the improvement of the school when he does something towards improving the qualifications of these teachers. Let us, then, do what we can to improve this thorough preparation. The world is full of shams; let us then do what we can to encourage thorough preparation on the point of the teachers, and not only that, but a high ideal in the mind of every teacher concerning the nature of his work. We need to believe in our work, and, incidentally, in ourselves in connection with it. We do not want to reverse the order of these things, but we do want to have faith in the work, and faith in our ability to perform it. My friends, I have said in times past, and it really seems now that after the experience of the years that I have had I may repeat here to-day, that if, in the case of

a teacher, we are to have our choice between good literary qualifications, with a lack of professional enthusiasm on the one hand and poor literary qualifications on the other, with the presence of a right professional enthusiasm along with this poverty of literary attainments, I would take the latter. Any man, or woman either, who is lacking in literary qualifications, but who has a faithful, loyal purpose to perform his, or her, duty, will have the qualifications sometime. I remember one notable instance. It was in the State of Massachusetts, where they know everything that is worth knowing. I remember, years ago, that the venerable president of Harvard College was a member of a State board of education, and a certain gentleman, very well known, was proposed for secretary of that board. Some of the members said, "Oh, no; it will never do. He is not a college graduate; he has never received a diploma."

Said the president, "I want to say to you that if he does not know enough to be secretary of the board of education now, if you elect him he will know enough in six months;" and that was the highest kind of a recommendation. He was elected and became a distinguished success. Now, I hope you will not infer that I place a low estimate on literary qualifications. I do not believe that one of the wants of the time is more profound knowledge.

We ought to have a profound attainment in every man who has to do with the administration of this great enterprise of the public schools, but we want something that will guarantee, not present attainments alone, but greater attainments as the years come and go, and then we will have something more valuable than the present can disclose. We have in Illinois a school law, and, I should think, from the number of bills that are now before the Legislature proposing to change the law, that it must be one of the worst laws ever enacted. Well, I think it should be changed; it is imperfect. But let me tell you one thing, that the school law of Illinois, or any other State, imperfect though it may be, is better fitted to accomplish its work than the general average of the qualifications of the teacher. This is not a very popular thing to say at a teachers' convention, but I find quite a number of teachers who will indorse it. A good, thorough, earnest, well-informed, self-educated body of teachers will do good work, and under the best law ever contrived a body of teachers of poor character will certainly do poor work, and so this association, and all other associations of teachers and of superintendents, have it in their power to effect results just where they can be used to the best advantage in the onward march of this great work of education, namely, in the improvement of the qualifications and in the character of teachers.

Hon. SOLOMON PALMER, State superintendent, Montgomery, Ala.: *Ladies and Gentlemen*: I am in the habit of getting out of making a speech whenever I can, but upon the subject of education I am always ready to raise my voice in behalf of what I believe will promote it. I

fully indorse every word of what Dr. Richards has said, and it was largely in the line of what I proposed to say myself. The paper of my friend, Hon. Warren Easton, is certainly valuable, full of suggestions, and should receive our careful consideration. It is eminently practical. However, it looks rather to an amendment of the law than to an execution of the law. Upon a careful analysis of the subject, I believe it will bear that construction. I have a great deal of opinion and prejudice in my nature, and I hesitate to adopt the opinions or the theories of men unless they are tested by actual experience, and my experience does not extend far enough beyond my own State, and I think that it would be the safest, perhaps, and as profitable as any other mode of discussion, to tell you something of what we have in Alabama—something of the laws of our system and of their execution. This paper suggests that there should be a board of education, which may be called a State board of education, or by any other name. Now, I am free to confess that this is something that I believe we have never had in Alabama.

I have read the school laws of most of the States, and as far as I know Alabama is about the only State in the Union that does not have a board of education. I was a little anxious to come into the line; I did not like to stand alone, and I have given this some little consideration, with a view of recommending in the future to provide for a State board of education. I have made some inquiry as to the duties and the operations of these boards of education in other States, and I was led to the conclusion that possibly they might be dispensed with just as well as to have them. In my own State I have experienced no inconvenience, practically, on account of the want of a State board of education. I believe that we can, and do, under our system accomplish all that which would be desirable to accomplish with this board. I am free to confess that if appeals were to come to the State superintendent he would like very much to have a board of education to share that responsibility, but, fortunately, in my State the law specifically provides that no appeal shall lie with the State superintendent, and notwithstanding that I receive from six to a dozen letters each day asking for information and to settle the differences that occur in the various townships and districts of the State. I think, possibly, they ought to have this right of appeal. I tried to be just and liberal, but I felt that there were cases in which there were hardships. I was reading a few moments ago the report of the State superintendent of New York, and he was an elaborate writer. He set forth in glowing terms the variety of duties that devolved upon him, and they seemed to be laborious indeed, and at the close he said, that, notwithstanding the accumulation of these various duties resting upon him, "I must confess that seven-tenths of my time is taken up in hearing appeals." I cannot conceive that a State superintendent could intelligently and satisfactorily and enthusiastically discharge the duties of his office, harassed and worried with

all this responsibility, and I am really very glad that an appeal does not lie to me.

One thing that is rather peculiar has been referred to at this meeting, and that is that the State superintendent has authority under our law to appoint county superintendents, and the county superintendents to appoint the township or district superintendents. This seems to be a little arbitrary, a little undemocratic. There has been an effort time and time again to have some special law passed allowing the people to elect the county superintendent. In many instances they have done this, but I find recently that they are going back, many of them, to the appointing power. I believe two counties at the last session of the Legislature passed from the elective to the appointing system voluntarily. One man, who was not a progressive man, came to me a few months ago and told me that he was opposing normal schools, but said he, "You are right upon one question, and that is about the appointing of county superintendents." We have made a complete failure in electing county superintendents, and we would like a change. The present manner of appointing secures unity, and there should be unity to secure harmony in every system. I believe I have said all I care to say so far as the law is concerned.

Now, I would lay stress upon one additional duty, and that is I would have the superintendent be an expert teacher, let him be well versed in the modern methods of instruction, and let him be the conductor in each of the districts of a live teachers' institute. This will have a tendency to unify the work, to unify the course of instruction, and the methods of instruction, and I am sure that that would be very profitable indeed; and I can only say that I have felt very much the need of uniformity in our examinations and in the certificates that are granted. Under our system there is a board in each county. It is true that the law prescribes that the examinations be for the different grades of teachers' certificates, but outside of that they are entirely free and independent of each other. I have seen a few of the questions propounded by these boards of examination, and they are wholly impracticable, and I confess that I would come before them myself with fear and trembling if I had to secure a certificate. This is very unfortunate. There should be some provision for uniform examinations and tending to a uniform series of questions to be propounded and answered by teachers for certification.

Now, in conclusion, allow me to say one thing in the way of emphasis for something that Dr. Richards has said. For fear that a wrong impression may go out, I want to say that the State superintendent is, *ex officio*, a member of our normal school, and it is his duty to meet with the board; and I want to say to some of them here that we have six normal schools that are doing excellent work, and we do something, too, in handicraft, in industrial education. In each of our three colored normal schools industrial education is taught. They make everything that is needed in an ordinary home—chairs, tables, bureaus, washstands,

&c. They do their own cooking, their own sewing, laundrying, and I feel sure that it would be a matter of astonishment and do your hearts good to see the industrial department connected with these normal schools for the colored race in our State. Not only so, but we have established recently in connection with the A. and M. College an industrial department. They have some two dozen lathes, and now a plan is being made, and an appropriation has been secured, to obtain forges for hand work in iron, and that will be in successful operation in a few months, and free, entirely free, to every young man, not only in the State of Alabama, but in all of the States. As I said, I want to emphasize one thing. Any system must have a head, and there will be death to the execution of that system unless it has at the head a live man, just as we must have in a school a live teacher. I have been wonderfully impressed since I have been actively engaged in school-work with the importance of the school officer or school teacher having his heart in the work. He will have a dead school unless it is. I tell you a live superintendent with the cause of education in his heart, I care not how poor the system may be, will make a success of education in that State; and I care not how complete the system may be, if he has not the cause of education at heart, it will be a failure. I was very much impressed with one remark that was made by the gentleman from New Jersey. He said we had too much supervision and that we must get out of the way. Now that might be differently construed; and we had a different construction, or at least a construction placed upon it a few meetings ago that might mean one thing and might mean another. I take it that it may be well enough for the supervisor to get out of the way. He should get out of the way by leading the way and not letting his heels be tramped upon by any one. He must lead the way and the others will follow.

Dr. JOHN L. BUCHANAN, State superintendent of public instruction, Richmond, Va.: *Mr. President and Ladies and Gentlemen:* I rise more for the purpose of seconding the motion which my friend Mr. Palmer proposes to make to adopt the paper read by my friend from Louisiana and the remarks made by Dr. Edwards, and also to move to add his very appropriate remarks upon the subject, and allow that to cover the whole question, and that I might be relieved from any effort to add anything more to this interesting discussion.

The fact is that the older I get the less disposed I am to enlist myself in anything like an off-hand discussion. My experience is limited to a single year, and therefore it is rather more proper that I should be a learner than a teacher as touching such an important subject. The subject, as presented on the programme, is without any limitations, and I suppose it is proper in those who discuss it to develop, as far as practicable, the highest idea of a system of State school supervision, and then endeavor to secure proper legislation to make that ideal the real system.

I suppose the object of this discussion is to develop as far as we can the best system of State supervision, and then let the laws grow out of the system, rather than the system out of the laws. I understand that we have an open field in this matter, and that we can devise any system that we think best. It is unnecessary to remark that the best system of supervision in one State might not be the best in all respects in another State. The extent of territory embraced, the amount of money available for school purposes, the density of population, the status of society, intellectual, moral, and social, and the general economic and business life of the people, all have a great deal to do with this. All these will necessitate certain modifications of any general system to adapt it to special requirements. It is hardly worth while to say that every system of State supervision ought to be marked by a oneness of purpose and unity of plan, and of course that oneness of purpose, it goes without saying, is the education of the people, whatever that term may include. I will not take up your time by any discussion of what the thing is, but the one purpose of supervision is the education of the rising generation. I was glad that Dr. Edwards emphasized that. We may have here a beautiful piece of machinery; every wheel runs with perfect precision, every bolt is in place, everything is all right, but the machine will not move. An old friend of mine, living near me, became excited on the subject of finding coal. He found a certain kind of rock, and he said that the rock on his farm was a first-rate kind of coal—it only lacked one thing, and that was that it would not burn. You may have the best system in the world, but if it does not educate the children it is like the coal—it is of no account. To accomplish this purpose it is necessary to have a central power somewhere, a power endowed with the persistent energy that works to this end, and a power that is possessed of intelligence, that knows how to direct the energy to the attainment of the end. This is the mainspring of the entire system, and this mainspring ought to have sufficient power to act without any hesitation. We might go on to say how this power would be elected and in what officers it should be vested. I should want a board of education, one member of which ought to be the Governor of the State, another member the attorney-general; but I have found, practically, in Virginia, that, with our three members of the State board of education, the Governor, the attorney-general, and the State superintendent of public instruction, the most of the work will fall upon the latter. The Governor and the attorney-general have most of their time occupied with the business of their offices, so it leaves this matter largely with the State superintendent. That officer, if I were to imitate a certain gentleman who always took off his hat when he spoke of himself, is your humble servant.

I would like to add to this State board of education three or four of the educators of the State, who will do the literary or educational part of it. I want the Governor on it, because he is the chief execu-

tive. The power of the State is represented in him, and I think he ought to be a member. I want the attorney-general because of these troublesome legal questions to which my friend Dr. Edwards, has referred. This is one of them: The clerk of a school board wrote to me to know whether it was his duty to carry a written contract to a lady teacher or whether it was her duty to come to his office and sign it. He said that as one of the board he had voted against that lady, and that she had treated him with such want of courtesy that he did not feel that it was his duty to carry that paper to her. Says I to myself, this is a very foolish question. There is no post-office, no railroad. I began to turn the thing over, and I did as I do in a great many things, I began to reason over it. Said I, "Sir, if it was your duty to have that contract ready and you did not have it ready, then, sir, it is your duty to take that contract to her."

I should want, besides these gentlemen, two or three or four men, representative of the educational interests of the State, men who were in that line of work and who have faith in this thing, and men who believe that a great result lies before us.

I was reminded of another little incident. I had a kinswoman residing in a town in Alabama who was a literary lady, and she had a son who was a successful business man; and one day a lady said to her, "How in the world did you manage to rear your son in such an excellent way?" "My gracious!" she said, "by the use of prayer and the slipper." So faith and discipline is what we want, and men who have the faith and the discipline to go on these boards.

Now, you will observe that I have the boards established. I want them to be sort of cabinets for these humble individuals, the State superintendents, to be advisory boards, and to operate as checks upon them if they grow a little autocratic. In our State this board does the chief work of investigating all the funds that are given; the State board is employed to make laws, adopt resolutions, and carry into effect the public school system, and would you think that there is not one single school officer in Virginia who is elected by the people?

There is but one man who is elected by the Legislature, and he did not make it by a great deal this time, and that is the State superintendent; he only came out a few hundreds ahead.

The State superintendent in Virginia is the only school officer who is elected, and he is elected by the Legislature. The State superintendent appoints every county superintendent and every city superintendent, and then we have a county electoral board, respecting which I hope to have the law changed. That board, if I can have the law changed, will consist of the county judge of the Commonwealth, the attorney-general, and the county superintendents.

We have the township system in Virginia, a school board of three gentlemen for each district. The county superintendent examines the teacher and the district elects him. The theory is to have this central

power lodged with the State board of education and the State superintendent, and then all this machinery between the central power and the end to be reached will be done away with.

I once asked a man, "What do you do when you want to raise good corn?" "Well," said he, "in the first place, I have good land." Well, the first thing you need for a good system of State supervision is to have a good man at the head of it—a broad-minded man, a man of liberal views, of culture (I am not exemplifying what I say), a man of broad culture, of earnest faith. I would not object if he had been reared the way the lady reared her son; but he should have definite, clear ideas on popular education, clear ideas of what personal character is, and of good citizenship and unity and harmony and progress, and all those things that make a country great. The teacher is the school, as some gentleman has said, and the best way to have the best sort of State supervision is to get a good man and then make him State superintendent. When you have that man, be he Democrat or Republican, or what not, if he is the man for that place, let his politics alone, and let him stay there as long as he will stay.

Hon. J. W. HOLCOMBE, State superintendent of public instruction of Indiana: Though, as compared with the gentleman who has just spoken, I am a sufficiently venerable person, feeling the weight of four years of superintendence, I do not step to the floor presuming to instruct the gentlemen whom we have just heard, nor did I intend to speak upon this subject, as I have occupied the time of the convention before. The remarks which have been made about a State board of education have very much interested me, because I regard a State board of education as a body which may be the salvation of a State system of education if you get the right men on the board. This convention some six or eight years ago did the State of Indiana the honor of adopting as its opinion of an ideal public school system a report which embodied the existing system of the State of Indiana, with very slight and unimportant changes. Four years ago, when I entered upon the duties of superintendent of public instruction of that State, I had my opinion as to what constituted an ideal State system.

During these four years my views have changed somewhat, and I have come to the conclusion that the ideal system, as adopted by the convention and as operated in Indiana, is not entirely ideal.

I have come to think that we are too much hampered by legislative statutes. Nearly every function of an educational officer, nearly every operation of the educational work, is laid out and defined with exactness in the statutes of our State.

We are bound by a rigid, stereotyped system. Our statute prescribes the subjects which must constitute the course of study; it prescribes the subjects in which the teachers must be examined; it prescribes the times and places where these examinations must be held. If most of these matters of detail and arrangement could be left to a competent

State board of education, which should have very large and very general legislative powers in regard to fixing the qualifications of teachers and in regard to prescribing the courses of study in different kinds of schools; if it could be given considerable control in the matter of the selection of text-books, and if it could be given a general supervisory control over the system of normal schools, teachers' institutes, &c., very much could be effected in the direction of improvements which have been pointed out at this and other meetings. With all deference to their excellencies, the Governors of States, and their honors, the secretaries and State officers, who are generally the members of State boards of education, I would like to suggest that, so far as my own observation goes, it has led me to the opinion that these gentlemen are of but little value as members of such boards.

Different kinds of State boards prevail among our States. A board made up of the Governor, attorney-general, secretary of State—some three or half a dozen State officers—men whose time is entirely absorbed in the duties of their offices, who have but little knowledge of educational work, and who take a mere perfunctory interest in it at best—such boards have seldom given much practical help in promoting a system of public instruction or in carrying it out.

There is another kind of board of education, composed of persons appointed by the Legislature, perhaps, or by the Governor. This is much better, because we may naturally expect that persons appointed for these specific duties will have some interest in and qualifications for them.

I think a still better arrangement is one by which we may secure for the members of our board professional educators in an *ex officio* manner, men acquainted with educational work, and who will not have to be appointed especially as members of the State board of education. We have this feature to some extent in Indiana. So, in reforming our present ideal system, I should wish to preserve this feature. We have first upon our *ex officio* State board of education the State superintendent of public instruction, and then the Governor, representing the executive authority of the State. The Governor attends a meeting now and then, shakes hands, sits down for a few moments, hopes that things are going on well, and takes his departure, and when he goes the work proceeds. The board, however, is made up mainly of professional educators, the city superintendents of the three largest cities in the State, and the presidents of the State's three higher institutions being members thereof. These men are selected by the several cities and institutions for their special qualifications as school officers and teachers, without reference to service on the State board. Yet this impartial and non-partisan mode of selection gives us the best men that could be procured for just that service. They are, to repeat, the president of the State University, the president of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, the president of the State Normal School, and the superintendents of schools

of the three largest cities. This gives us professional educators. But I wish to see the board enlarged in another direction, in order to qualify it for wider legislative powers which should be conferred upon it. There should be added to it an equal number of county superintendents. (I believe every State should have county superintendents, and those that have not should get them.)

A State board, then, should contain representatives of these three elements on the board: the country schools, the city schools, and the higher educational institutions. A body of this kind, composed of from nine to a dozen professional educators, all actively engaged in school-work in their different departments, each one bringing to the board an exact knowledge and experience which the board would need, and all under the direction of the State superintendent of public instruction—such is the board I want. It is best qualified to unify the school system and to co-ordinate its different parts. I think we would not need the attorney-general as a member. He would generally be a dead-head at the meetings, and as the constitutional adviser of all State officers his opinion may always be obtained on any points of law which may arise. The work that this board could do would be an extension of the work it has been doing in Indiana for the last twelve years. Through such a State board we could secure what the gentleman from Alabama desires to secure—uniformity of qualifications for the teachers. For the last twelve years our board has prepared all the questions upon which the teachers throughout the State have been examined. At its quarterly meetings it prepares these questions, which are printed and distributed to the ninety-two counties. The revising of the manuscripts is left to the county superintendents. I have said, perhaps, enough to suggest what a State board of education can do for a State.

In my own experience such a board as this has thus far done the very great work of bringing about something like uniformity of qualifications for the teachers, and has raised the standard of qualifications throughout the State, and this is doing very well. A board constituted as I have suggested would be competent to legislate upon all questions connected with the qualifications of teachers, the improvement of their examinations, their training, and professional reading, and the matter of laying out courses of study which we considered this morning.

A MEMBER: What would be your opinion as to the advisability of a popular election of State superintendents as compared with the appointment of the superintendent by a board of education constituted as that of Indiana is?

Mr. HOLCOMBE: I certainly must admit that the appointment of the State superintendent by such a board seems to me to have some very decided advantages. It gives, at any rate, the advantage of unity in the board and sympathy between the board and its head. At the same

time there are, I think, positive advantages connected with the popular election of the State superintendent as we have it in the Western States. The State superintendent is then a constitutional officer, though his term of office may not be so long as is desirable. It brings him to a certain extent into relations with the people, gives them greater confidence in the opinions and work of the officer than if he were appointed by a remote board. On the whole, I regard the method of election by the people as preferable.

Hon. W. H. ANDERSON, Wheeling, W. Va.: This is a hard question that is given here. It is hard when you undertake to talk about the best system of almost anything, and I do not come here to answer this question. I think that the best system is that which will reach out—the best system is that which will benefit the whole State most; but how to get it, that is the hard question to answer. The live teacher will have a live school, and there are live teachers and live scholars. I suppose that every person who has had any experience in teaching school will know of pupils who are driven off to school who cannot get there in time, and who will make excuses as to why they did not get there in time. After awhile they are placed in the hands of another teacher. The whole thing changes; they get to school in time, and they become really interested in the school. You see just what is the matter. They have had a sort of awakening, and I think it is all on account of the teacher. The best kind of a system will not be that kind of a system which will get at those who are alive, but some kind of a system to make them alive, and in that way they are awakening the schools. I believe there is a way by which almost every man may be awakened, but how to bring this about is the question. I think we cannot answer it at this meeting. I think that no system will bring this about entirely, but I believe we ought to aim at it.

Now, just one word about the board. I feel like agreeing with the gentleman from Indiana about having politics on the State board. The Governor and the attorney-general would further education, but if politics is brought in it will do the schools more harm than good.

Hon. FRED. M. CAMPBELL, Oakland, Cal.: At the time I had the pleasure of reading a paper at the opening of the convention I passed over some notes bearing upon this question. I passed them over, saying that if it was desired I would state what had been done, and as I have been asked about it to-day I will talk two or three minutes to explain it.

STATE TEXT-BOOKS.

At the general election in November, 1884, a constitutional amendment was adopted by the people of California by a vote of 143,017 to 11,930 directing the State board of education to compile, or cause to be compiled, a series of text-books for use in all the schools of the State.

The section of the constitution, as thus amended, I have read in your presence, but reproduce it here. It is as follows :

SEC. 7. The Governor, superintendent of public instruction, and the principals of the State normal schools shall constitute the State board of education, and shall compile, or cause to be compiled, and adopt a uniform series of text-books for use in the common schools throughout the State. The State board may cause such text-books, when adopted, to be printed and published by the superintendent of State printing, at the State printing office, and when so printed and published, to be distributed and sold at the cost price of printing, publishing, and distributing the same. The text-books so adopted shall continue in use not less than four years; and said State board shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law. The Legislature shall provide for a board of education in each county in the State. The county superintendents and the county boards of education shall have control of the examination of teachers and the granting of teachers' certificates within their respective jurisdictions.

At the session of the Legislature next following the adoption of this amendment an act was passed designating the books to be first made, and appropriating \$20,000 for their compilation, and \$150,000 for plant, printing, and manufacture. Following is the act thus passed :

An act to provide for compiling, illustrating, electrotyping, printing, binding, copyrighting, and distributing a State series of school text-books, and appropriating money therefor.

[Approved February 26, 1885.]

The people of the State of California, represented in senate and Assembly, do enact as follows :

SEC. 1. The State board of education shall compile, or cause to be compiled for use in the common schools of the State, a series of school text-books of the following description, viz : Three (3) readers, one (1) speller, one (1) arithmetic, one (1) grammar, one (1) history of the United States, and one (1) geography. The matter contained in the readers shall consist of lessons commencing with the simplest expressions of the language, and, by a regular gradation, advancing to and including the highest styles of composition, both in prose and poetry.

SEC. 2. The State board of education shall employ well-qualified persons to compile the books mentioned in section 1 of this act, and shall fix the remuneration for the services thus rendered: *Provided*, That if competent authors shall compile any one or more works of the first order of excellence, and shall offer the same as a free gift to the people of the State, together with the copyright of the same, and the exclusive right to manufacture and sell such works within the State of California, it shall be the duty of the State board of education to accept such gift, and to expend no money for the purpose of compiling works relating to the subjects treated of in the books thus donated. The State board of education shall furnish to the superintendent of State printing designs for all cuts and engravings to be used in the said series of text-books.

SEC. 3. The printing of all the text-books provided for in section 1 of this act, and all the mechanical work connected therewith, shall be done by and under the supervision of the superintendent of State printing at the State printing office: *Provided*, That the purchase of paper for the school-books, and the cardboards, cloth, and leather for covers shall be procured by advertising for proposals to furnish the same, in the manner now provided for by section 532 of the Political Code, relating to paper supplies for the State printing office: *And, provided further*, That when the State has its bindery in operation, all folding, stitching, binding, and ruling of the State shall

be done in the State bindery; but the accounts of the school-book binding shall be kept separate from those of all other binding.

SEC. 4. The State board of education shall secure copyrights to all the books that shall be compiled under the provisions of this act, and shall protect said copyrights from all infringement.

SEC. 5. Whenever any one or more of the State series of school text-books shall have been compiled and adopted, the State board of education shall issue an order requiring the uniform use of said book or books in the common schools of the State; but said order for the uniform use of said book or books shall not take effect till the expiration of at least one year from the time of the completion of the electrotypes plates of said book or books. Nothing in this act shall be construed to prevent any county or school district from adopting any one or more of the State series of school text-books whenever said book or books shall have been published.

SEC. 6. The process of distribution of the text-books shall follow this course: The county superintendents of schools shall make such requisitions for books as the schools under their jurisdiction may require, upon the State superintendent of public instruction; the State superintendent of public instruction shall then make requisition for the same on the superintendent of State printing, who shall ship the books to their destination. All requisitions from county school superintendents for books shall be accompanied by the cash price fixed for the same by the State board of education, and the State superintendent of public instruction shall make no requisition for books upon the superintendent of State printing unless he shall have received the lawful price for the same. And it shall be the duty of the superintendent of public instruction to report to the State comptroller, on or before the fifth day of every month, the number of books sold by him during the preceding month, and to pay the moneys received for the same into the State treasury. It shall also be the duty of the superintendent of State printing to make a monthly report to the State comptroller of the number and value of the books shipped by him on the order of the State superintendent of public instruction, and the number and value of the finished books on hand.

SEC. 7. It shall be the duty of the boards of supervisors, of the counties, or cities and counties, in this State, to provide a revolving fund, for the purpose of enabling the county school superintendents to purchase the State text-books; all moneys to be taken therefrom to be replaced by the moneys received from the teachers of the commonschools in the several counties for the books furnished by them to the scholars.

SEC. 8. The sum of \$20,000 is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the State treasury not otherwise appropriated, for the purpose of compiling, or causing to be compiled, the series of text-books for the common schools, as set forth in section 1 of this act. The appropriation provided for in this section shall be subject to the order of the State board of education: *Provided*, That all demands against said appropriation shall first be approved by said State board of education and presented to the State board of examiners in itemized form for its approval, and upon the approval of the State board of examiners the comptroller is hereby authorized to draw his warrant upon the State treasurer for the payment of said demands, and the State treasurer is authorized to pay the same.

SEC. 9. The sum of \$150,000 is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the State treasury not otherwise appropriated, to purchase the necessary machinery, presses, types, bindery, electrotyping apparatus, and such other material as may be required in the manufacture of the text-books provided for in section I of this act, as well as to pay the salaries or wages of the compositors, binders, and other persons to be employed in such manufacture: *Provided*, That the State board of education shall first approve the style of printing, engravings, and illustrations, kind of paper, size and binding of volumes; said sum to be drawn by the superintendent of State printing in the same manner as provided in subdivision 4 of section 526 of the Political Code.

SEC. 10. The school-books published under the provisions of this act shall be furnished to the common school children of the State at cost, the same to be ascertained and fixed by the State board of education at the beginning of each school year.

SEC. 11. All acts or parts of acts in conflict with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 12. This act shall take effect immediately.

At a meeting held shortly after the passage of this act the State board selected a competent gentleman as managing editor of the work at a salary of \$200 per month, since made \$250, and advertised for the benefit of the educational public that it would receive and consider specimen chapters of the various books proposed to be made. None of the matter so submitted, however, was accepted except the selections for a series of three readers, which were taken as the basis of that work. The State superintendent, Prof. William T. Welcker, and the managing editor were directed to prepare the readers and the speller.

Prof. Ira Moore, of the normal school at Los Angeles, was directed to take charge of the arithmetic. To Prof. Charles H. Allen, of the normal school at San José, was assigned the preparation of a grammar. These gentlemen employed such assistants as they deemed necessary, and proceeded with their work. At the present time the series of three readers and the speller have been placed before the public, and the prices fixed, at Sacramento, and by mail, as follows: First reader (cloth, 128 pages), 15 cents, mail 20 cents; second reader (cloth, 288 pages), 30 cents, mail 38 cents; third reader (half Russia, 512 pages), 40 cents, mail 52 cents; speller (cloth, 192 pages), 20 cents, mail 26 cents.

In passing through Sacramento on my way hither I obtained a half dozen sets of these books, and they are here for inspection and are at your disposal. At that same time, upon inquiry, I also learned from the present State superintendent, Mr. Ira G. Hoitt (who went into office on the 1st of January last), that communications from the localities in which the books have been used for several months express very great satisfaction with their character. The books are going into use gradually, because many of the contracts heretofore made between local boards and school-book publishers have not yet expired. Our contracts in Oakland will not expire till June, 1888.

Concerning the other books, it may be said that the arithmetic has been placed wholly in type, for revision by the author, the editor-in-chief, and the board, and a considerable part of the work has been revised and electrotyped. The grammar has been prepared and portions of it put in type for revision.

From my intimate personal acquaintance with all the gentlemen into whose hands this work has fallen, I can speak confidently of the conscientious manner in which it is being prosecuted, and their peculiar fitness for carrying it on to successful completion. Mr. W. H. V. Raymond has had large and valuable experience in similar work, and moreover brings to his duties as editor-in-chief untiring energy and zeal. The authors are practical men, for years at the head of leading normal

schools; and I know that, in the compilation of all the books, it has been their conscientious aim to employ only well-tested school-room methods. The general plan of criticism and revision has been to distribute proof pamphlets of each work, not only to the members of the board, but also to a number of the enterprising and intelligent teachers of the State, and to take their suggestions into consideration.

The method of distributing the books to pupils has not been fully or satisfactorily settled. That is one of the most perplexing problems involved in the whole scheme of State publication. The provision for this in the original act of the Legislature was not well considered.

A bill to amend that act in this particular, which is before the Legislature, now in session, provides as follows:

SEC. 6. All orders for text-books shall be made on the superintendent of public instruction, and shall be accompanied by cash, in payment for the same, at the price fixed by the State board of education as the cost price at Sacramento: *Provided*, That if the books are to be shipped by mail, the cost of postage shall also accompany the order. The following persons shall be entitled to order books:

(1) County superintendents of schools, for the use of teachers and pupils in their counties.

(2) Principals of State normal schools, for use in their respective schools only.

(3) The secretary or clerk of any school district in the State, whether incorporated or operating under the general law of the State, for the use of the pupils in said district only, but no books ordered by county superintendents, principals of normal schools, or clerks of school districts, shall be sold at a price exceeding the cost price at Sacramento, with the actual cost for freight added.

(4) Any dealer who shall first transmit to the State superintendent of public instruction an obligation, signed by him, not to sell to be sold again, or to any one beyond the limits of the State, or at a price exceeding the mailing price of the books.

These provisions will probably become law, and in this way it is hoped that all classes of citizens will be conveniently and cheaply served.

Four candidates for the authorship of the United States history submitted specimen chapters. Superintendent Hoitt has control of that subject, and has directed that the engraving shall go forward of such matter as can be determined upon in advance of the complete writing of the work.

Nothing definite has been done about a geography, further than to get from the State printer an estimate of the cost of plates.

Of the \$150,000 appropriated for plant, labor, and material, \$120,000 has been expended.

Of the \$20,000 for compiling, \$9,000 has been expended.

One hundred and eighty-thousand dollars is asked from the present Legislature for compilation and manufacture. By the bill making this appropriation it is to be expended in making, say, 50,000 books of each kind, after which the further editions shall be made from money drawn from the fund accruing from the sales. The cost of plates, plant, compilation, and illustration has been distributed by the board over an estimated supply for twelve years. There are in stock (in round numbers)

\$40,000 worth of finished books at the cost valuation. This, of course, comes back when they are sold. The gentleman, Mr. Kinne, who contributed the selections, used as the basis for making the readers, did so without asking or receiving pay. Mr. Willis, who made the speller, received \$1,000.

All the work of every kind in the readers and speller has been done in California. The designs, costing about \$900, were made by artists of California. They were Thomas Hill, Miss A. Randall, and Carl Dahlgreen, of San Francisco, and Mrs. Miriam Weeks, of Sonoma County, whose previous work had been done for London publications, she having been in California but three years. The engraving was done in the capitol building by engravers employed by the week. The amount paid for this work was about \$2,300.

The committee on resolutions made the following report; which was adopted :

Resolved (1), That our thanks are due to Professor Baird for the use of this commodious room for holding our meetings; and also the local committee for their efficient preparation for the same.

Resolved (2), That our thanks are due to the railroad corporations that have favored us with a reduction of rates of transportation.

Resolved (3), That our thanks are due the press of this city for the interest taken in our proceedings and the courtesy shown in the publication of the same.

Resolved (4), That we tender our thanks to the hotel proprietors who have kindly reduced their rates for the benefit of those attending this session.

Resolved (5), That our thanks are hereby tendered to the president and executive committee of this Department for the efficient and acceptable manner in which they have performed their duties.

Resolved (6), That the National Department of Superintendents looks with favor upon the disposition of some of the colleges and universities to recognize public school work as a profession, and that we appreciate what has been done towards establishing chairs of pedagogy in a few of them.

Resolved (7), That it is the sense of this Department of Superintendence that if satisfactory railroad and hotel rates be guaranteed, it would be in the interest of the National Educational Association that its session for 1888 be held in San Francisco.

Resolved (8), That the secretary of this Department be instructed to forward a copy of the foregoing resolutions to the secretary of the National Education Association.

NINTH SESSION.

The convention re-assembled at 7.30 p. m., Thursday, March 17, 1887.

The PRESIDENT: The first thing on the programme is a privileged statement by Major Bingham, of North Carolina.

Maj. ROBERT BINGHAM: I find myself reported this morning as having said last night that there were no free manual training schools in the South. Several gentlemen, besides the reporter, so understood me, and I rise to correct the misstatement, if I made it. We have in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkansas manual schools, mechanical and agricultural, sustained by the proceeds of the land scrip given by the Government, but they are called colleges for higher in-

struction. There is the Miller School in Virginia, doing a most excellent work, and there are several excellent schools supported by Northern charity for colored people, so that we are doing this work. Even in North Carolina, my own State, we have an orphan asylum, for which the State has made an appropriation for the agricultural and mechanical training of two hundred orphans. This has been in operation for a year. The statement I wished to make was that we have no manual training connected with the public schools, distinctly supported by school taxes. That kind of manual training we have not been able to have. It seems to me doubtful if it can be had in the North even. That was the statement I wished to make, that so far as public school work was concerned, sustained by school-tax money, we have not as yet been able to reach it. Otherwise we are doing as much as can be expected under the circumstances.

The PRESIDENT: The subject for discussion is "The Relation of our Public Schools to the General Government."

Major McKinley, who was expected to be present, is called away and has sent his regrets. Senator Blair, who some months ago was asked to participate in the discussion, at that time thought he could not accept. Since that time, however, he has kindly accepted the invitation, and I am glad to say he is with us to-night and will talk upon this subject. I have the honor to introduce Senator Blair.

Senator H. W. BLAIR: I am sorry, my friends, that your greeting cannot be extended to the gentleman who was to be present and to address you upon this subject. It was the day before yesterday, I think, that I understood he was to be absent, and your president called upon me and requested that I would say a few words, which I am here to do.

As suggested by the chairman, this is one of the most important subjects that engages our attention. Being an important subject, it could hardly be more appropriately considered than by the educators of the country, because really in the hands of the educators of the country lies its fate; and this question, the relation of the schools of the country to the nation, and the nation to the schools, which can only be a practical question as you consider it and as you may discourse upon it—this question I say, thus important, thus engaging your attention, may, I think, very properly be taken up on this last meeting of your association, because I think just now in the existing relations between the nation and the schools of the country, in the existing condition of the public mind, that there are influences now in operation which must be led to work out fairly and fully their ultimate fruition, or by the consideration of the present or the immediate future be destroyed, so that their influence for good in the whole future of our country will as an element disappear. If the members of this convention were to take home to the several States which they represent any one thought for the immediate present and future, I think it may well be the relation between the nation and the public schools. There is a vast body of the people of

the country with whom by reason of the practice of the past and the fact that in those portions of the country where the system is well founded no other idea seems to prevail save that of local support and responsibility for the education of that community, and so of the country. That is the general sentiment, and the thought is an aggressive one which breaks up the existing order of things, which requires interference by the nation in the management of the schools, or in their support. The affirmative seems to be upon those who take the ground that now and in the future, or at least temporarily, until existing conditions are removed, the nation should become a factor in the education of the children.

I recognize that fact, that it is the right and duty of the nation to participate in the education of the children; I realize that it is upon me, as one individual, to maintain affirmatively that right. The public mind must be first convinced. When I say that the public school is practically the government of the country, I do not mean to say that for the legislation of to-day and for the administration of the laws of to-day the public schools of to-day are responsible, but I do mean to say that the influence of the public schools in the past, the development of intelligence among our people by educative influences and institutions, is responsible for the conditions that exist to-day, for the character and capacity, for the nature of the nation, as it now is; and just so with reference to the future educational influences that are at work to-day; just so, I say, the future is to be founded upon these influences. I say that I consider the public school the Government. The forms of our Government, both national and State, are republican; they are based, of course, upon the intelligence of the people. From the beginning of the Government, and long years before, during the colonial period, when the idea of self-government was germinating and strengthening and expanding, enlarging and growing more and more vigorous, until it culminated in the Revolution and freedom, the public school, the idea of intelligence in the individual, was the formative principle which led to the republican form of government. Certainly, before a body of this kind, it is unnecessary to argue that without intelligence self-government is impossible. If it be so, it follows that self-government, once existing, can be prolonged by the continuation of moral intelligence in the children and those who are to come afterwards. If the principle of intelligence be once demanded as indispensable to the exercise of sovereignty, and if the establishment of a republican form of government gives sovereignty to each individual, it follows that this individual must be intelligent if it be necessary that intelligence exist in the Government. We would hardly expect the king or the emperor or the czar to undertake the functions of his form of government without intelligence, but is it less difficult for the American people to rule themselves as a nation. Is it not, on the contrary, more difficult because of the universal subdivision of power? If intelligence be necessary to the government of the czar,

whose will is law, in order that he may carry out the functions of his form of government, is not intelligence equally necessary to every individual who is a sovereign in the republican form of government? Knowledge is power; government is power. The functions of government are precisely the same in a republic that they are in a despotism.

There is the legislative power, which makes the law; the judicial power, which construes it; and the executive power, which executes it. The only difference is that with us these powers are universally diffused, the sovereignty is everywhere, in the whole people; while in the other case it is an unlimited, absolute monarchy or one man's power. If this be so, if knowledge is indispensable to the existence and to the preservation and perpetuity of the republican form of government, then the right to make the people intelligent is simply the right of self-defence, and the duty of self-defence. If we are to-day sufficiently intelligent to govern ourselves, the children who are born without education will grow up as ignorant as those in Africa. They must be educated; and the duty of the preservation of our institution is simply the duty of educating the children of the country, educating them religiously, morally, intellectually, and physically; and this is the great work that devolves upon the educators of the country. The National Government is republican in form, as much as are the governments of the States; and if intelligence be indispensable to the one it is also to the other; and if the right of defence belongs to the government of the State and can only be exercised by educating its people, equally so must that right of self-defence belong to the National Government, for it is equally republican in form; it is founded originally upon the people themselves; it is not an outgrowth of the State governments; it is independent of them; it is sovereign in its great and universal sphere. The nation is charged with the duty of guaranteeing to the States a republican form of government. If that republican form is intelligence among the masses of the people, and it be the duty, as it is made by the express terms of the Constitution the duty, of the nation to preserve perpetually to the States a republican form of government, how can that guarantee be fulfilled save by guaranteeing the intelligence of the people in the States? That will give them a republican form of government in the States, and nothing else can. In order that we may fulfil this guarantee of free government, of a republican form of government in the States, must it not be able to preserve a republican form of government in itself? That is to say, must it not have the power, and exercise it, of making the universal citizenship of the whole country, the national citizenship, intelligent, in order that it may preserve and defend the government republican in form to the nation itself? Thus I think to educate the people within the jurisdiction of any government republican in form is simply the right of self-defence, the right to live.

I have sketched in this brief way what is to my mind the fundamental

idea with reference to the duty of the United States in its relation to the public schools of the country, whether they be in States or Territories. If this be so, the question would then arise, and it is a practical question, whether that power should be exercised; whether there is at the present time a duty for the nation to perform. I recognize that the exercise of this power to create a citizenship, State and national, will not be necessary at any given time on the part of the nation, or that at any given time its partial exercise only may be necessary, that the manner of its exercise may be by absolute interference and control with educational affairs in a State, or in the way of assisting existing educational institutions and facilities then under the control of the State, or there may be other methods, according to the nature of the necessity or the circumstances existing.

The primary necessity and duty is that the nation see to it that the citizen of the nation and the citizen of the State shall be intelligent, that he shall be fit to discharge the duties and functions of citizenship, that we may preserve our liberties.

As a universal rule, unless there be strong reasons for exception, I think the support of the schools of the country should be a local affair, exercised and carried out by the people, by the parents of the children who are to be educated. I think the primary duty of education would seem to be upon the parent. If the parent is unable to discharge it, or fails to do so, then the surrounding community, the State at large, ought to assist and should see that the thing is done. It has been found in our country, universally, that some municipal or State organization was necessary in order to bring out the advantages of the education of all the children to the State. So that the common school system has come to be the State system universally throughout the country. There I would like to leave it, with the parent and with the State, if there was not, for the time being, in my judgment, a necessity for other assistance, for the exertion of national power, for the efficacy of national appropriations to this great result. I do not myself think it would be for the benefit of the nation, for the benefit of the States, that national assistance to common schools should come to be perpetual.

I do not believe that it would be necessarily so. The necessity existing to-day can very soon be relieved and will pass away, and when a condition of intelligence has established schools throughout the country the community that has known this blessing will take good care that it shall be perpetuated. The State which has once a vigorous, strong, influential system of common schools, which shall have presented this condition to its people, which shall be able to remember and contrast these existing conditions—conditions of elevation and refinement, of wealth and culture—with that from which it has emerged, such a State will maintain the institutions through which this transformation has been effected.

But until the common school system and method of educating and rendering intelligent the children of the country—until such a system has been once established and has permeated the whole community with its living influences—until then we cannot expect local communities to be very willing to contribute for its establishment; but if they fail to do so, are other sections of the country, that have already fully experienced the benefit of these schools—I say shall they protest that where they are not perhaps even desired they shall not be established? The very fact that in some sections the desire for the establishment of the common schools is feeble that is the stronger reason why they should be established. Those who comprehend the necessity should take a special interest in the establishment and development of the common school where it has hitherto been unknown.

Where this is once done these very communities that have been the slowest to appreciate and the last to use are the most vigorous in their approval and support of the institutions.

I do not want to speak with reference to this matter sectionally. I have no sectional feeling so far as I am aware. I think the man who is not in his feelings and sympathies as broad as his country had better get out of it. The American ought to be as large as America, and it is so with the American people of to-day. Therefore it is that I believe that any effort made by the nation, as such, to assist in the establishment and maintenance of common schools should be based upon some universal law or general condition; it should be based upon the evil which is to be removed, and the means should be applied where the evil is, in the proportion in which it may exist in the different sections. It is the illiteracy, the ignorance of the country which is our danger, and if we are to apply a remedy we must apply it where the danger exists. If in so doing a larger amount of the medicine goes to one section than to another, it is equally for the good of all; for it makes no difference where you introduce the virus in the system—it may be in the hand or foot, or anywhere—the circulation carries it all over the body.

In the question of the education of the children in the Southern States it is as much important that Massachusetts contribute to the removal of the evil there as it is that she contribute to the prevention of the evil or the removal of the conditions existing in her own borders. National help should come, then, to all parts of the country, according to the degree of evil which national assistance to education is expected to remove. The past is passed, and we are dealing with the present; and who shall say that Massachusetts, or New England to-day, if she has advantages in wealth and education that may be lacking in other portions of the country has for that reason any cause to take to herself any superiority over those other portions? In all portions of the Southern and Western country it is astonishing those familiar with the facts to see how the people are advancing, how the children are improving.

and how the wealth has grown by intelligence, and how rapidly there is coming to be, wherever the school is established, a prosperous condition of the people and of the country.

There are some other things which ought to be considered with reference to this national relation. All through the Southern country where the institution of slavery prevailed common labor was, of course, for the time being, involved in the subjection to the law. Compensation to labor was substantially the necessary support of labor, and whatever there was of profit went to the class which owned the labor. That was the institution of slavery, an institution as old as time, and which had existed under the laws of the States and the Constitution of the country until within the last twenty-five years. Labor then was cheap throughout that section of the country; it was cheap by reason of the existence of this institution. That institution existed for the reason that there was a condition of ignorance upon which alone slavery could be based; therefore it was that labor was cheap, because it was ignorant, unintelligent, not capable of entering into the different industries. Production was cheap in the South. In the North different causes operated; the masses of the people became intelligent; self-production more universally diffused among the people; and as civilization is simply the development and cultivation of our wants, so this desire of the civilized man for greater means wherewith to supply his wants became greater. Without the power to purchase consumption must fail, and consumption is simply the ministration to those wants of the higher civilization. All that has passed away; freedom is universal throughout the country; it is the rule; and yet production is much cheaper to-day. The production of the South is coming to be diversified. People are being educated, but at the same time education has not progressed at the South. General intelligence among the people has not progressed in the same degree with the power to produce. In proportion as their increased power of production has been developed new and diversified industries have sprung up everywhere. European capital is being invested there; every coal-mine, every water-power, every valuable portion is being fastened upon by capital, and every form of production is springing up all over the South. The result is—and I am stating this for the information of Northern people—the result is a competition between the Southern production and Northern production in some of our Southern States. Now we must give to all portions of the country the same degree of elevation, so that if in a Northern home there shall be a piano, or any form of ministration to higher wants, there shall be a corresponding development in some Southern family, and there shall be a homogeneous condition produced of general intelligence and development of culture in the production and in the power to purchase the productions which minister to the wants of the higher civilization. If you produce, then, among the Southern people, the same condition of elevation, the same wants as in other parts of the country,

there must be the same consumption there; those who labor must have and will have universal wages, in order to purchase the material to supply those wants, and the result will be that it will cost as much to produce at the South as it costs at the North, and the common people will have the same power to purchase, and, therefore, power on their own part to consume. As there is so little time I must drop the idea, but the point is this: Northern people are interested in this matter just as much as Southern people are. It is a matter of self-defence for the North; for unless the great labor problem is met and regulated you will have this enforced competition between these productions.

I have been requested to say a little to the audience with reference to the condition of the education bill. This association of superintendents of the country has fathered it from the beginning. It has grown out of the wants of the people in all portions of the country as they have have been brought to the attention of the superintendents of the country. The census also was a revelation, but along with the cold figures of the census came the personal statements of the superintendents of the various States. These statements have been laid before Congress for six or eight years. These statements and some deductions from the census were brought to the attention of the different members of Congress and finally to the two Houses of Congress. There was for a long time a bill which proposed to give simply the interest of the annual accumulation of the sales of the public lands, to distribute this throughout the country upon the basis of population. It was found that this would not amount to much. For the present it was no help, and therefore it was that the present educational bill which has one thing as its leading feature, and that is the appropriation of enough money now to do some good; therefore it was that this educational bill was introduced into the Congress of the United States. That was in the month of December, 1881. It was introduced in the Senate as a report from the Senate committee, but it got no further.

It was discussed, however, and the idea was brought out. The next was the Forty-eighth Congress, in which the bill was fully discussed and finally passed the Senate. It appropriated \$77,000,000 to be distributed through the country upon the basis of illiteracy during the eight years following its enactment into law. It was just about an average of \$10,000,000 a year. It began at 7 millions; went to 10, 15, 13, 11, 9, 7, and 5 millions, during which time the whole amount would have been distributed. That bill was very carefully and fully discussed during several weeks of the Congress, and was finally passed by a vote of 33 to 11. It was not passed by a two-thirds vote or as a party measure. Perhaps it was more generally supported upon the Republican than upon the Democratic side of the Senate, but the difference was so slight that it was not a party measure. The States of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Mississippi gave 2 votes in the Senate; there was 1 from Alabama, 2 from Florida, 2 from Georgia, 1 from South Carolina, 2 from North Carolina, 1 from

West Virginia, 1 from Kentucky, 1 from Tennessee, &c. As you see, the South as a section really gave more votes than were given against it.

It passed in the Forty-eighth Congress, on the 7th of April, by a vote of 33 to 11. It went to the House, and, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of Mr. Willis and other members of the House, it failed to be considered; and I ought to say that in the House of Representatives, in the same Congress, there was a measure of like character, though of considerable less power, which was reported from the Senate Committee on Education, but got no further. Strong influences were against the bill, and it failed. On the assembling of the Forty-ninth Congress, just expired, the bill was re-introduced in the Senate in precisely the same form that it had passed before, and after a three weeks' discussion it again passed the Senate by a vote of 36 to 11, gaining 3 votes. It went to the House last March a year ago, and there it met a bad fate. The Committee on Education, who should have considered such a measure favorably, were found to be opposed to it. Its friends then introduced the bill under another head as a House bill, and it was referred to the Committee on Labor after a somewhat heated contest, which resulted, I believe, in a vote of some 50 majority.

There were some objections to the reference, which seemed to be a slight to the other committee, who had failed to act upon it. For a long time the Labor Committee, who were expected to report at once, kept the bill in their possession, and at last, after very great pressure, reported adversely on the Senate bill, and presented a substitute, which was really—I do not risk anything by saying this when I say that the majority report was made for the purpose of killing the bill—reported a substitute which was too ridiculous for consideration. The minority reported in favor of the measure of the Senate, but failed to get consideration through the long session, and so the matter came over to the short session.

Never was greater effort made. Memorials came from all over the country. Over 100,000 signatures were placed to a petition for the passage of the bill, many of them representing large bodies, societies and organizations of men and women, so that the entire representation—as I am assured by those who have examined into the matter—the entire representation in favor of the bill was not less than 2,000,000 of people. The friends of the measure made a strenuous effort to secure its consideration under the direction of the committee who had the bill in charge, and on a test vote, as to the consideration of the bill, had a majority of 160 in its favor to 76 against it, more than a two-thirds vote. By a process of filibustering its consideration was defeated, and so it passed beyond the control of any committee. Then nothing remained but an appeal to the Committee on Rules, who are a committee of the House with power to report at any time. That committee, in connection with the management of the appropriation bills, and the Speaker's power of recog-

nizing whomsoever he pleases, are the elements which really control the course of business in the House. A minority of the committee were in favor of reporting the bill for consideration, but the majority steadfastly refused not only to report that bill, but to report for the consideration of the House any of the great measures that had been referred to it in the same way, fearing, as they expressed it, that if a report was made some of the friends of the school bill would move to amend that report by proposing the school bill for consideration, and if it got out of the committee it would go through the House, so that there was no other way but to prevent its report, and so it failed. But, although the bill failed, its strength before the country was developed, and also that it had more than a two-thirds vote in the House of Representatives. Any one who has observed the discussion on this bill must have seen its strength.

The matter now stands in this way: The public necessity almost universally demands it, the Senate in two Congresses has developed more than a three-fourths majority for the bill, the House more than a two-thirds majority, which would insure its passage, even if it had to incur the opposition of a veto, which I do not believe it will, if it reaches the Executive of the country, and we have every reason to hope that in the Fiftieth Congress we shall achieve success. We will know the nature of the opposition we must meet, and the friends of the bill will see that it is considered during the Fiftieth Congress, and being introduced early, and supported as I know it will be by the same influences which have hitherto carried it along, until it has grown stronger and stronger, I believe we shall be certain of success in the Fiftieth Congress.

Remember the necessity for the bill. It will educate two generations of the children of the country in the common school. Your great work will be to aid in the passage of this bill. To have passed this bill with all its beneficent influences and results will be a sublime work for at least one generation. If we accomplish it we may pass from the State and feel sure that the republican form of government and all that it means will be perpetuated forever.

Dr. M. A. NEWELL, Baltimore, Md.: *Ladies and Gentlemen:* I am in the position of a man whose thunder has all been stolen. Senator Blair has left me absolutely nothing to say. I have watched the progress of these various gatherings for the last eight years and have always been charmed and encouraged by the Senator. Now I owe him an everlasting debt of gratitude for having relieved me from the necessity of making a speech. I rise merely to make an apology for not speaking. There is just one point, however, that may possibly be brought up in connection with this subject, taking as the theme the words of our subject, "The relation of the public school to the Government." What relation have the schools to the Government? In the first place, the schools must teach the nature of the Government; they must make the pupils familiar, not only with local administration and municipal administration and county

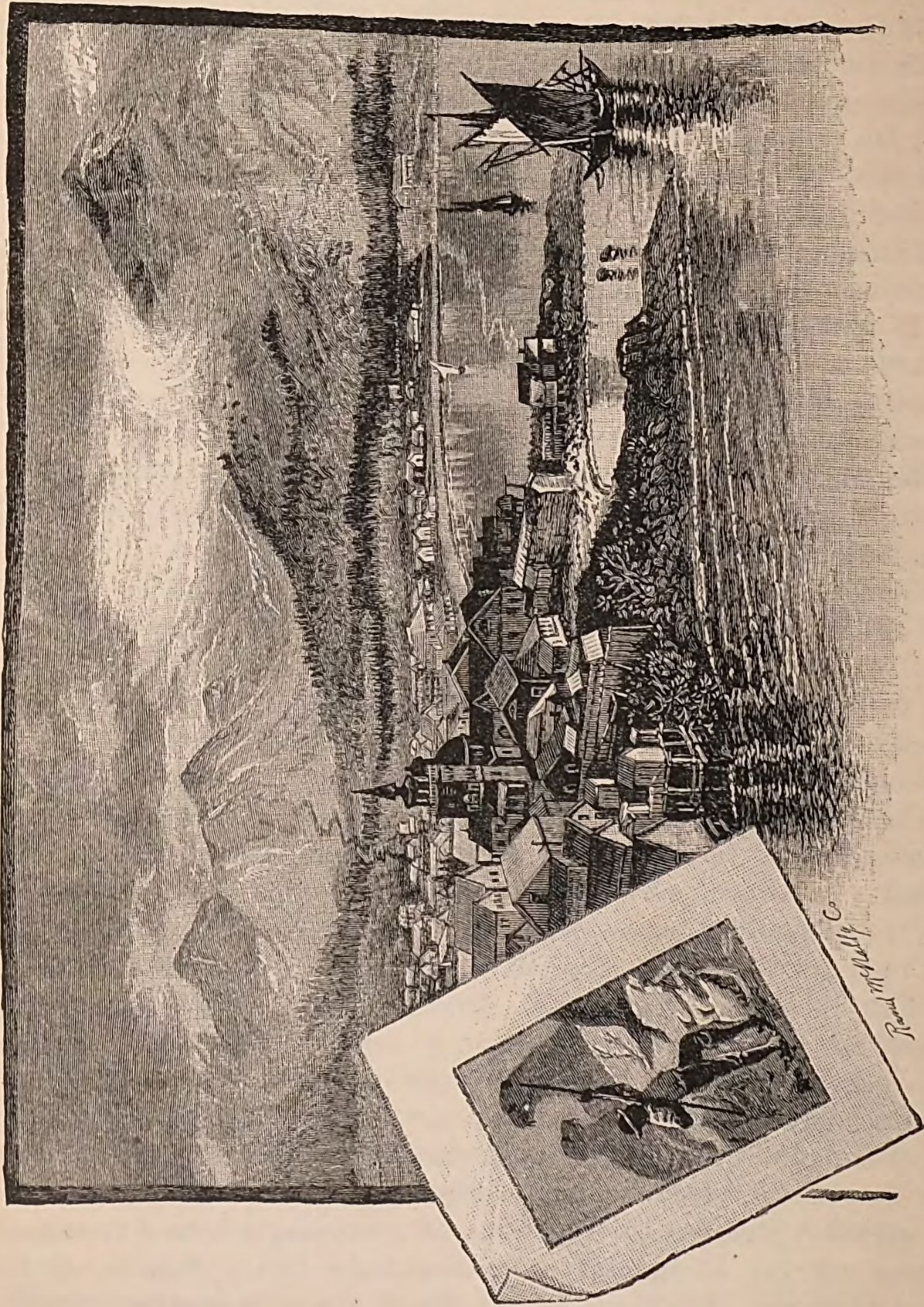
administration and State administration, but also with national administration. Among the things the schoolmaster will have to teach to the children before very long, perhaps during the very next session, is this: That the time is coming, perhaps the time has come, when it will not be in the power of any one man or of any clique of men, any small knot of representatives, any corporation, to thwart the will of the vast majority of the people of the United States. There is a part of the relation the public schools will have to the Government. Our children must understand that we are a free people, that we are the Government, and that we will not have our hands tied behind our backs when we are coming forward in the great cause of liberty and education for all. Our hands have been tied; we have been prevented from doing not only what is just and right, but what a large majority of the people of the country, North and South, East and West, desired to do; and we say, "Children, you must see that this shall not be done again." Whenever changes are necessary in the administration of the Government—this should be embraced in them—that no small knot of men, however high their position may be, whether Speaker of the House or chairman of a committee, shall be able to make of no avail the expressed will of the great majority of the people of these United States. Rights and duties are reciprocal, and our schools have a right to claim something of the Government. We talk about the Government supporting the schools. Why, it is the schools that support the Government, for the Government is the people, and what is it that keeps us as a people but our intelligence, and what creates that intelligence but the schools? Let the Government support the school; let the township support it; let the State support it; let the nation support it. I am not an advocate of patronage; I do not believe that the Government should be asked to do anything that we are able to do ourselves, but here is a thing which we cannot do for ourselves at the present time, and we have a right to call upon the Government we support to support us in that which is right. I thank you for your attention.

The PRESIDENT: I have the honor to introduce Senator Stewart, of Nevada.

Senator STEWART: *Ladies and Gentlemen:* I came here as a spectator, with no intention of making any remarks; but your subject is one in regard to which every intelligent American must have some views. I believe the subject under consideration is "The relation between our common school system and the Government of the country." There can be no question about their intimate and important relation. Our Government is projected upon the theory that man is capable of self-government; that he can govern himself. We have extended to all men, without regard to race or color, the right to participate in the Government. If the Government fails at any time it will be from ignorance. Nothing else can destroy a government of the people but ignorance. Intelligence prompts every citizen to desire good government, and if the people

know how to obtain it they will have it. It is not alone the case with this Government, but it is the case with all governments that have failed on account of ignorance. It has been the foe that has stood in the way of the progress of man and the government of men. It is the foe of our free institutions. Nothing else can destroy us but ignorance. We have ample resources; we have a country which in fertility of soil, extent of country, and natural resources of every kind surpasses any other country on the globe, and it is now occupied by the most intelligent people on the globe, 60,000,000 of them; they are better fed, better clothed and educated than any 60,000,000 ever were before. Still, we are not free from the enemy of all good government—ignorance. Why is it that in our crowded cities we have fraud and corruption and bad government? Is it because the mass of the people desire bad government, because they have not learned how to remedy it? Four-fifths of the people of every great city where fraud and corruption exist desire good government. They must study how to obtain it. It is so throughout the country. We have presented to this country in the progress of civilization new questions, involving new information, new studies; the labor question, the tariff question, and the money question; great and complicated questions which are coming up, are being developed, and they require additional information. What would enable the people of this country to govern themselves fifty years ago would be inadequate now. Where there is little wealth the Government is simple, and it has been said that republics could only exist where there were no cities. The promoters of our Constitution declared that it was possible to have free government in America because there was no probability of there being great cities, and that there would be no difficult problems of government presented. But these problems are now being presented with a rapidity of development never before conceived of. Every new invention, the railroad, the telegraph, and every other, demands new intelligence. The question of the power of this Government to meet the foe, ignorance, and to provide means to advance against that common enemy of good government is unquestioned. We have many precedents for it. Whatever seems necessary for the public defence and the public good has been deemed within the power of the General Government. It has always exercised this power. It was thought, in the early part of the Government, necessary to have an army to fight the battles of the country, and we established West Point; we wanted a navy, and we established Annapolis. These are schools, schools maintained by the General Government because it was necessary to provide these means for our common defence. Now, again, I do not think wisely, but we have been having schools for Indians for the last forty years. They have accomplished very little, and have been failures. All the educating of savages will fail. Our Indian schools have been failures because they did not teach the Indians to work; but it illustrates the power of the Government in favor of any legislation that may be deemed necessary.

I am in favor—and I believe I have suggested it before in the course of debate on this question—I am in favor of the establishment in Washington of a normal school for the education of teachers. I believe the educators of this country should understand the problems of government with which the mass of the people are called to contend; that they should know all that is known of the labor question; all about the tariff question, about some of the elements of the money question; they should study the question of political economy, and, above all, the business of teaching should be made honorable; the teacher should be elevated in his own estimation. His badge, his diploma, should be a clear passport to the best society. If you will send a few thousand of educated teachers who understand home industries, home economy, who understand some of the fundamental principles of society—I do not care whether they are skilled in foreign languages or not—but if they understand the science of American government, of free government, of equal rights—I say if you will send a few thousand of these teachers as missionaries throughout the country you will elevate the standard and you will produce a revolution in our school system. This Government can afford it. Why, if we spend \$20,000,000 a year in educating teachers, in building up the system of free schools, of common schools, which would enable them to grapple with the complications of the Government as they arise, so that they would not be led away, so that they will have a safe anchor in an enlightened public sentiment, so that anarchists and fanatics cannot sway the people, it would not be too much. I believe a normal school, liberally endowed by the Government, would do more to sustain this Government than all the money spent on your navies and armies. I do not think the danger of our fall comes from without; I think it comes, and must come, from ignorance. Talk about the power of the Government! A bill was passed at the present Congress involving an exercise of power on the part of the Government the like of which has never before existed. You talk about the proposition that has already been illustrated by numerous examples, but the lazy House of Representatives took up another subject—widespread, immense—the subject of interstate commerce, the subject of the common carrier, the subject of trade, involving every section of our Republic, placing under the charge of the General Government the vast systems of railroads and common carriers generally, to undertake to regulate it for the benefit of the country; and what was more strange to me, the most rabid States' rights men of the South and of the North, and those who have been talking about a strict construction of the Constitution, when I find them going into all the States and taking charge of the commerce of the country, let no man say hereafter that we may not on the subject of education exercise the power that has been repeatedly exercised for like purposes, especially when now, as we know, the machinery of Government becomes more complicated, and we need a higher class of education, and while higher educators may go forth to enlighten the



Greek Church.

SITKA, ALASKA.

Training School.

Published through the courtesy of the Northern Pacific Railroad.

public, and we can govern this country without failing for the same cause that every government heretofore has failed, ignorance on the part of the people.

Dr. SHELDON JACKSON, the general agent of education in Alaska, was next introduced, and spoke as follows :

EDUCATION IN ALASKA.

Mr. President, Senator Blair has given you the principles of national aid to education. I bring to you an object lesson on the same subject.

The Alaska schools owe a debt of gratitude to the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association which it gives me pleasure to express.

At the winter meeting of this association, in 1882, Congress was memorialized to establish schools in Alaska.

In 1883 the National Educational Association took similar action, and upon its recommendation teachers in all parts of the United States—north, south, east, and west—sent petitions to Congress in behalf of education in Alaska.

The Department of Superintendence for 1884 went a step further, and appointed a committee to wait upon Congress and secure the incorporation of schools into the bill providing for a civil government for the district of Alaska.

This involved direct school-work by the General Government.

It was already carrying on schools among the North American Indians, and among all classes, white and black, native and foreign-born, in the District of Columbia.

Why should it not also undertake, until other provision could be made, schools in the district of Alaska.

The United States, in the purchase of Alaska, assumed all the obligations of Russia, guaranteeing by treaty to the inhabitants "the enjoyment of all the rights, advantages, and immunities of citizens of the United States." And among the advantages is the enjoyment of schools.

The Russian-American Fur Company, as the agent of the Government, gave Southern Alaska schools.

A school was established at Kadiak by Gregory Shelikoff, Governor of the colony, as early as 1785. In 1803 it reported thirty pupils, who were studying arithmetic, navigation, and four mechanical trades. In 1805 the imperial chamberlain and commissioner, Count Nikolai Resánoff, organized a school at Kadiak, under the name of the "House of Benevolence of the Empress Maria," in which were taught the Russian language, arithmetic, and the Greek religion. This school was re-organized in 1820.

About the same time a school was opened at Sitka, with a very precarious existence until 1820, when it came under the charge of a naval

officer, who kept a good school for thirteen years. In 1833 this school came under the direction of Etolin, who still further increased its efficiency. Etolin was a creole who, by the force of ability and merit, raised himself to the highest position in the country, that of chief director of the Fur Company and Governor of the colony.

In 1825 Veniaminoff, who afterwards became the metropolite of Moscow, established a school for natives and creoles at Unalashka. In 1860 it reported 50 boys and 43 girls. For the use of the schools, Veniaminoff prepared an alphabet and grammar in the Aleutian language. In 1837 a school was established for girls, children of the employés of the Fur Company, and orphans. In 1842 it had 42 pupils, and 22 in 1862, when it disbanded.

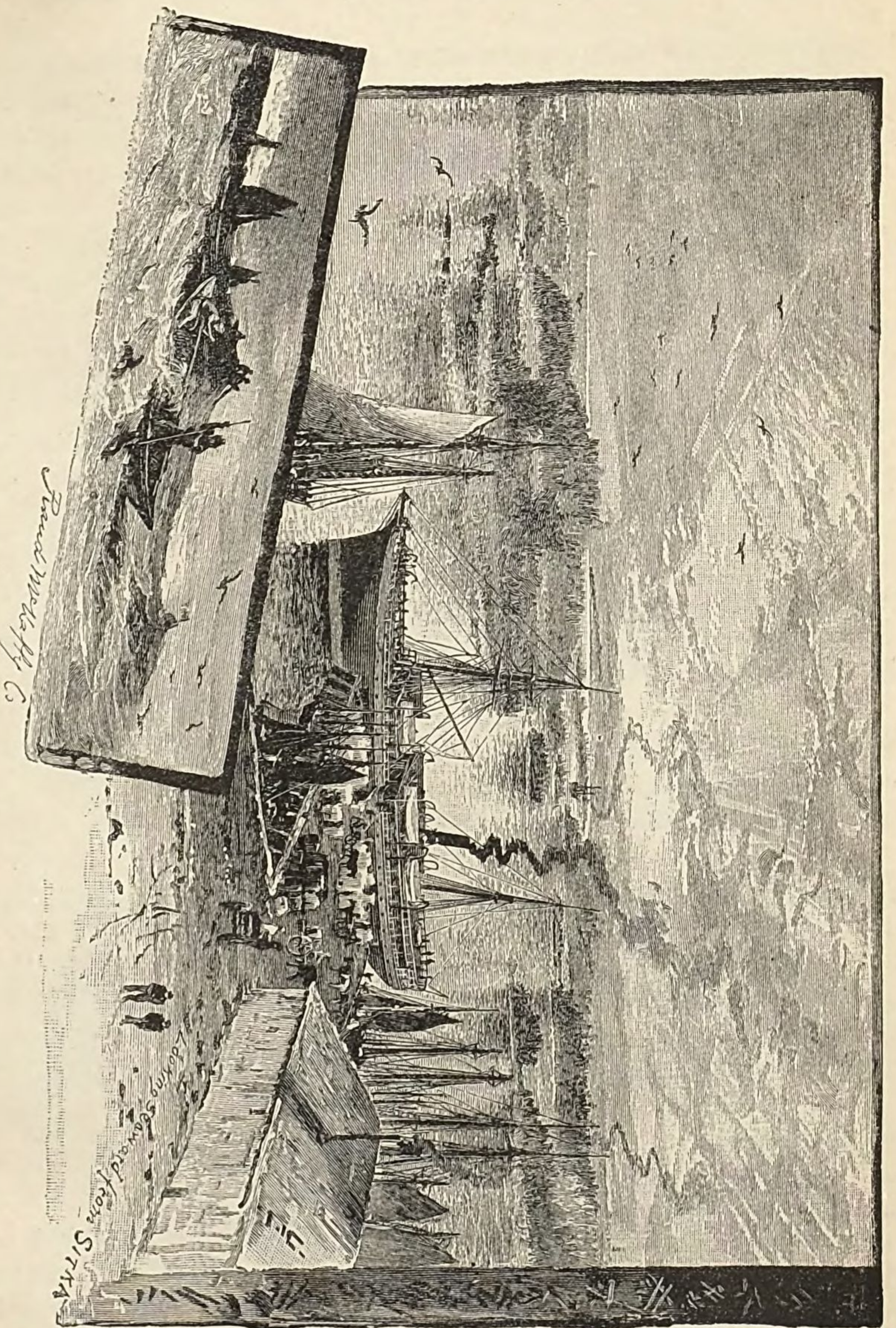
In 1840 there were in the colonies 8 schools, 4 for boys and 4 for girls. Besides the colonial school at Sitka was one for orphan boys and sons of workmen and subaltern employés of the Fur Company, in which were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, mechanical trades, and religion. The most proficient of the pupils at the age of 17 were advanced to the colonial school and prepared for the navy or priesthood. The number of boarders was limited to 50. The school was in charge of Lieutenant Commander Prince Maxutoff, assistant Governor of the colony. In 1847 the attendance was 52; in 1849, 39; and in 1861, 27.

In 1839 a girls' school of a similar character was established and number of boarders limited to 40. The course of study comprised Russian language, reading, writing, arithmetic, household work, sewing, and religion. In 1848 the school numbered 32; in 1849, 39; and in 1861, 26.

In 1841 a theological school was established at Sitka, which in 1845 was advanced to the grade of a seminary. In 1848 it reported 30 boarders; 12 day pupils and 12 creoles being educated in Russia. Of those in Russia, 2 were in training for pilots, 1 as merchant, 1 gunsmith, 1 fur dealer, 1 tailor, 1 cobbler. In 1849 the attendance was reported 28, with 11 others in Russia.

In 1859 and 1860 the common schools at Sitka were remodelled, in order to secure greater efficiency. The course of study consisted of Russian, Slavonian, and English languages, arithmetic, history, geography, book-keeping, geometry, trigonometry, navigation, astronomy, and religion. A knowledge of Russian, reading, writing, and the four rules of arithmetic were required for admission. A pupil failing to pass examination two years in succession was dropped. The course extended over five years. Extra compensation was allowed teachers who secured the best results. The faculty consisted of a principal, who was a graduate of the School of Commercial Navigation; a free pilot, who taught navigation; an employé of the company, who taught book-keeping and commercial branches; one priest and two licentiates, graduates of the University of St. Petersburg.

The corresponding school for girls was in charge of a lady graduate of one of the highest female schools in Russia, with two male teachers.



LOOKING SEAWARD FROM SITKA.

Published through the courtesy of the Northern Pacific Railroad.

This made five schools at Sitka: two for the children of the lower class, two for the higher class, and one seminary.

On Spruce Island a Russian monk kept a school for thirty consecutive years for giving instruction in the rudimentary arts and agricultural industries.

In 1860 a school was reported on Amlia Island, with 30 in attendance. All these schools have been discontinued. A school house was erected on the lower Yukon, but never used. The result of these schools, especially among the Aleuts, is thus summed up by Hon. W. S. Dodge, of Sitka:

Nearly all of them read and write. Around their homes, in their churches and schools, are seen many if not all the concomitants of ordinary American homes. Many among them are highly educated, even in the classics. The administration of the Fur Company often reposed great confidence in them. One of their best physicians was an Aleutian; one of their best navigators was an Aleutian; their best traders and accountants were Aleutians.

When, in 1867, Alaska passed from Russia to the United States, some of the inhabitants are reported to have asked Major-General Rousseau, who was the representative of the United States Government in the transfer, what would become of their schools, he replied, in substance, that the public school system of the United States was far in advance of Russia, and that our Government would provide them better schools.

The teachers supported by the Russian Government were withdrawn, and the people, naturally and properly, look to the United States for a continuation of the schools.

Again, the citizens of Alaska have no power to levy taxes for school or other purposes. Like the District of Columbia, they are governed by Congress, and must necessarily look to Congress for the support of their schools.

Further, the conditions of the country are such that for a long time to come it will receive but a small emigration from other sections of the country. The population that will remain permanently in that land and develop its many resources and cause it to assist in advancing the national prosperity are the native inhabitants. This makes it of national importance that those native inhabitants should be educated and civilized.

The present population of Alaska largely speak in foreign tongues, and it is a wise policy for the General Government to unify their language and raise up English-speaking citizens through good schools taught in English.

A large part of the civilized population of Alaska is Russian in its customs and sympathies.

While Washington's birthday and the Fourth of July are uncelebrated and unknown among them, the Russian Emperor's birthday and all the national holidays of Russia are celebrated with great enthusiasm. Yet these people are by the terms of the treaty United States citizens. Therefore it is the duty of the Government, through the public schools,

to educate them into an appreciation of the privileges of their citizenship. An important object lesson in every Alaska school would be the "Stars and Stripes." Let every school be furnished with a flag.

The Government receives from Alaska into its treasury at Washington an annual revenue of about \$317,500, and it is just that a portion of this revenue should be returned to that country for education.

These and other reasons were brought to bear on Congress, and in May, 1884, was passed the act providing a civil government for Alaska.

Section 13 of that law reads:

That the Secretary of the Interior shall make needful and proper provision for the education of the children of *school age* in the Territory of Alaska, without reference to race, until *such time as permanent provision* shall be made for the same, and the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated for this purpose.

Establishment of public schools.—On the 2d day of March, 1885, the honorable the Secretary of the Interior assigned the work of making provision for the education of the children in Alaska to the Bureau of Education.

It was a work of great magnitude, on a new and untried field, and with unknown difficulties. It was a work so unlike any other, that the experience of the past in other departments could not be the sole guide. It was a problem peculiar to itself, and must be worked out by and for itself. It covered an area of one-sixth of the United States. The schools to be established would be from 4,000 to 6,000 miles from headquarters at Washington, and from 100 to 1,000 miles from one another, and that in an inaccessible country, only one small corner of which has any public means of intercommunication. The teachers of five schools in Southeastern Alaska will be able to receive a monthly mail; the larger number of the others can only receive a chance mail two or three times a year, and still others only one annually.

It was to establish English schools among a people the larger portion of whom do not speak or understand the English language, the difficulties of which will be better appreciated if you conceive of an attempt being made to instruct the children of New York or Georgia in arithmetic, geography, and other common school branches through the medium of Chinese teachers and text-books. Of the 36,000 people in Alaska, not over 2,000 speak the English tongue, and they are mainly in three settlements.

It was to instruct a people, the greater portion of whom are uncivilized, who need to be taught sanitary regulations, the laws of health, improvement of dwellings, better methods of housekeeping, cooking, and dressing, more remunerative forms of labor, honesty, chastity, the sacredness of the marriage relation, and everything that elevates man. So that, side by side with the usual school drill in reading, writing, and arithmetic, there is need of instruction for the girls in housekeeping, cooking, and gardening, in cutting, sewing, and mending; and for the boys in carpentering and other forms of wood-working, boot and shoe-making, and the various trades of civilization.

It was to furnish educational advantages to a people, large classes of whom are too ignorant to appreciate them, and who require some form of pressure to oblige them to keep their children in school regularly. It was a system of schools among a people who, while in the main only partially civilized, yet have a future before them as American citizens.

It was the establishment of schools in a region where not only the school house but also the teacher's residence must be erected, and where a portion of the material must be transported from 1,500 to 4,500 miles, necessitating a corresponding increase in the school expenditure.

It was the finding of properly qualified teachers, who, for a moderate salary, would be willing to exile themselves from all society, and some of them settle down in regions of arctic winters where they can hear from the outside world only once a year.

To the magnitude of the work, and the special difficulties environing it, is still further added the complication arising from the lack of sufficient funds to carry it on, there being appropriated only \$25,000 with which to commence it.

Schools in Southeastern Alaska.—In Southeastern Alaska the establishment of schools, in comparison with the difficulties met in other sections of this land, was easy, as four of the seven schools can be reached monthly by the mail steamer. Further, schools had been kept at all these points but two for several years by teachers in the employ of the Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church. This missionary organization was the first of the American churches to enter that neglected land. Finding no schools, they established them side by side with their missions, proposing to furnish educational advantages until the General Government should be ready to do it. Therefore last fall, wherever the Government was ready to undertake the work in any village occupied by the Presbyterians they have turned over their schools to the Government. As the Presbyterians had a body of efficient teachers already on the ground, acclimated, experienced in the work, more or less acquainted with the native language, and possessing the confidence of the people, it was both more economical to the Government and for the best interests of the schools that they should, as far as possible, be re-employed, which was done.

Yukon River.—For years the Church Missionary Society of England has had mission stations at Fort McPherson and La Pierre House, bordering on Northeastern Alaska, and its missionaries have made occasional trips on the Upper Yukon and its tributaries.

Among the capable and energetic young men in its employ, Rev. Vincent C. Sims manifested so much interest in the people, such endurance of hardship, and such adaptation to the work, that application was made to the Board of Missions of the Protestant Episcopal Church to secure him as teacher of a Government school on the Yukon River. The society responded favorably, and selected as teachers Mr. Sims and Mr. Kirby, a young man born in that region, the son of Archdeacon

W. W. Kirby, an English missionary. Before the news of his appointment reached him, Mr. Sims died. The Rev. Octavius Parker, an Episcopal clergyman, of Oregon, was selected to succeed Mr. Sims. Mr. Parker and family removed to Saint Michael, Alaska, in 1886. This spring Rev. John H. Chapman, of the same church, has been appointed to join Mr. Parker. The school will be removed from Saint Michael, on the coast, to the valley of the Yukon.

Bethel.—During the summer of 1884 the American branch of the Moravian Church sent a commission, consisting of Rev. A. Hartman and Mr. William H. Weinland, to visit the western section of Alaska in search of a suitable location for a mission to the Eskimo.

They left San Francisco May 3, 1884, reaching the mouth of the Kuskokwim River, 4,479 miles, on the 12th of June. Leaving the steamer and hiring two three-holed bidarkas* (sea-lion skin canoes), with four natives to manage them, they ascended the river to Napaimute, 300 miles, visiting every village by the way. On the 9th of July they commenced their return to Fort Alexander, 600 miles distant, which they reached August 8, having been eight weeks in the uncomfortable boat. From Fort Alexander they returned to Unalashka by schooner, and from thence to San Francisco by steamer. The result of their exploration was the locating of a mission station 150 miles up the Kuskokwim River, near the native village of Mumtrekhlagamute. The new station was named Bethel. It was found necessary to have a special boat made for use on the river, also to purchase in San Francisco the lumber, sashes, doors, hardware, furniture, &c., for the mission buildings, to lay in a year's supply of provisions, medicines, and other necessities, and charter a schooner to take the supplies to the mouth of the river. On the 18th day of May, 1885, the party, consisting of Rev. William H. Weinland and Rev. J. H. Killbuck (Delaware Indian), and their wives, with Mr. John Torgersen, mechanic and lay assistant, sailed from San Francisco, reaching the mouth of the Kuskokwim on the 19th of June. They at once set about the transporting of the building materials and supplies to Bethel in their small boat.

On the 10th of August the mission met with a great loss in the accidental drowning of Mr. Torgersen, who, passing aft on the deck of their little boat, slipped and fell into the river. Ropes and planks were immediately thrown to him, but, being heavily clothed, the swift current swept him under.

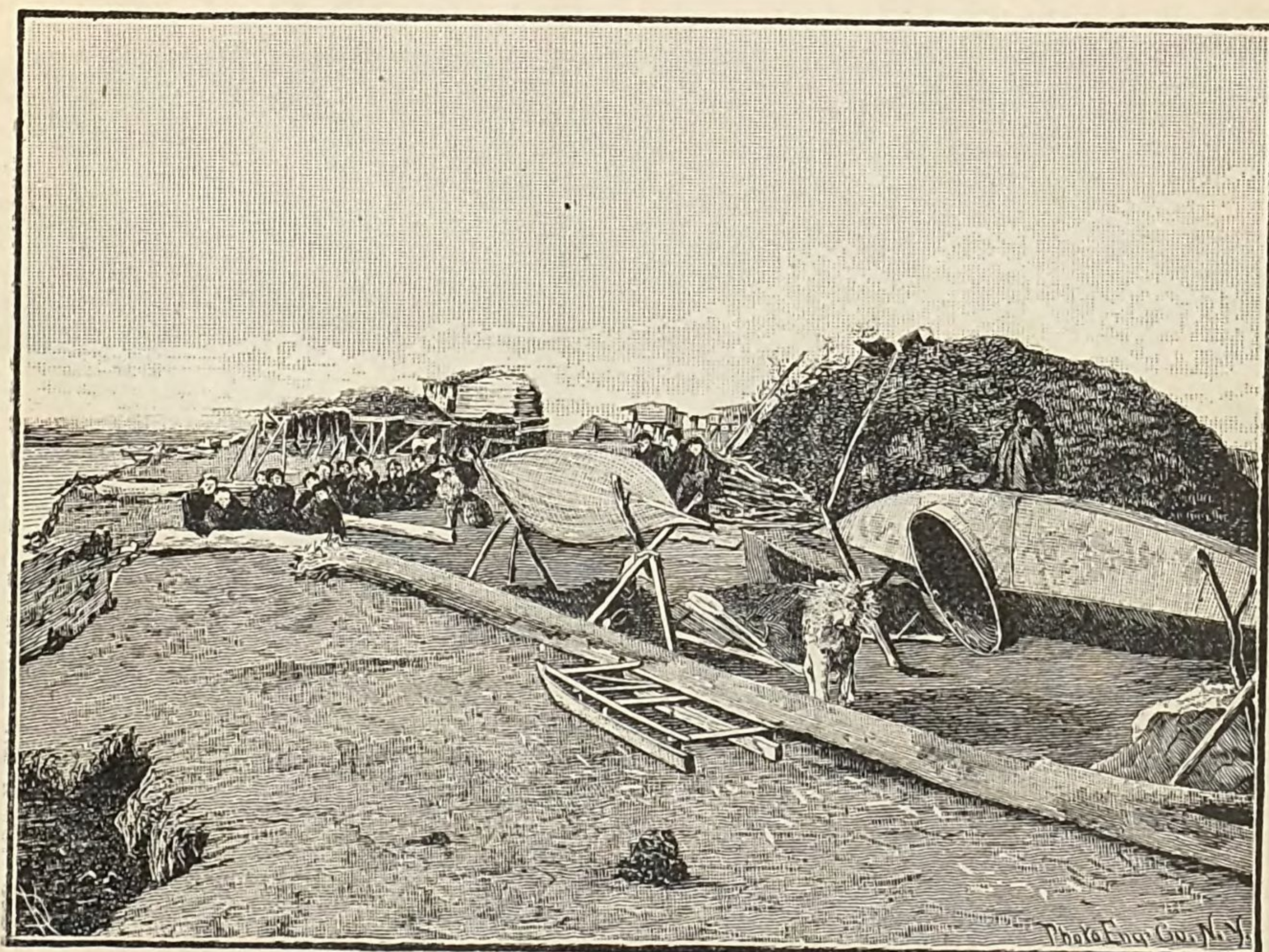
Rev. W. H. Weinland was appointed teacher of the Government school. He was also commissioned by the Government to establish and maintain a Signal Service station at that point.

Nushagak River.—A contract has been entered into with the Moravians for the establishment of a school at Nushagak. The teachers selected are Mr. and Mrs. F. E. Wolff and Miss Mary Huber. The buildings were erected in 1886, and the teachers are now *en route* to their destination.

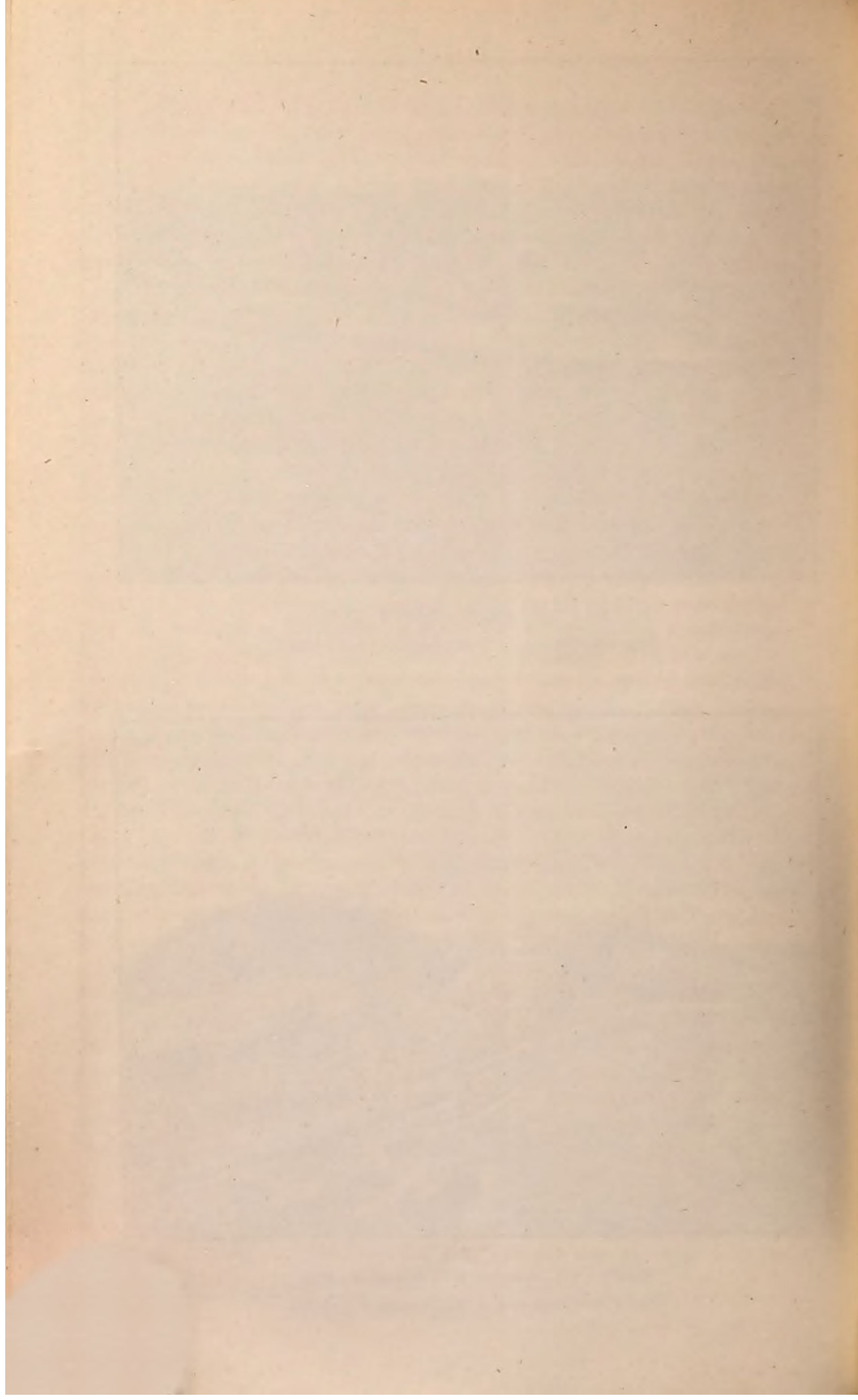
* See illustration.

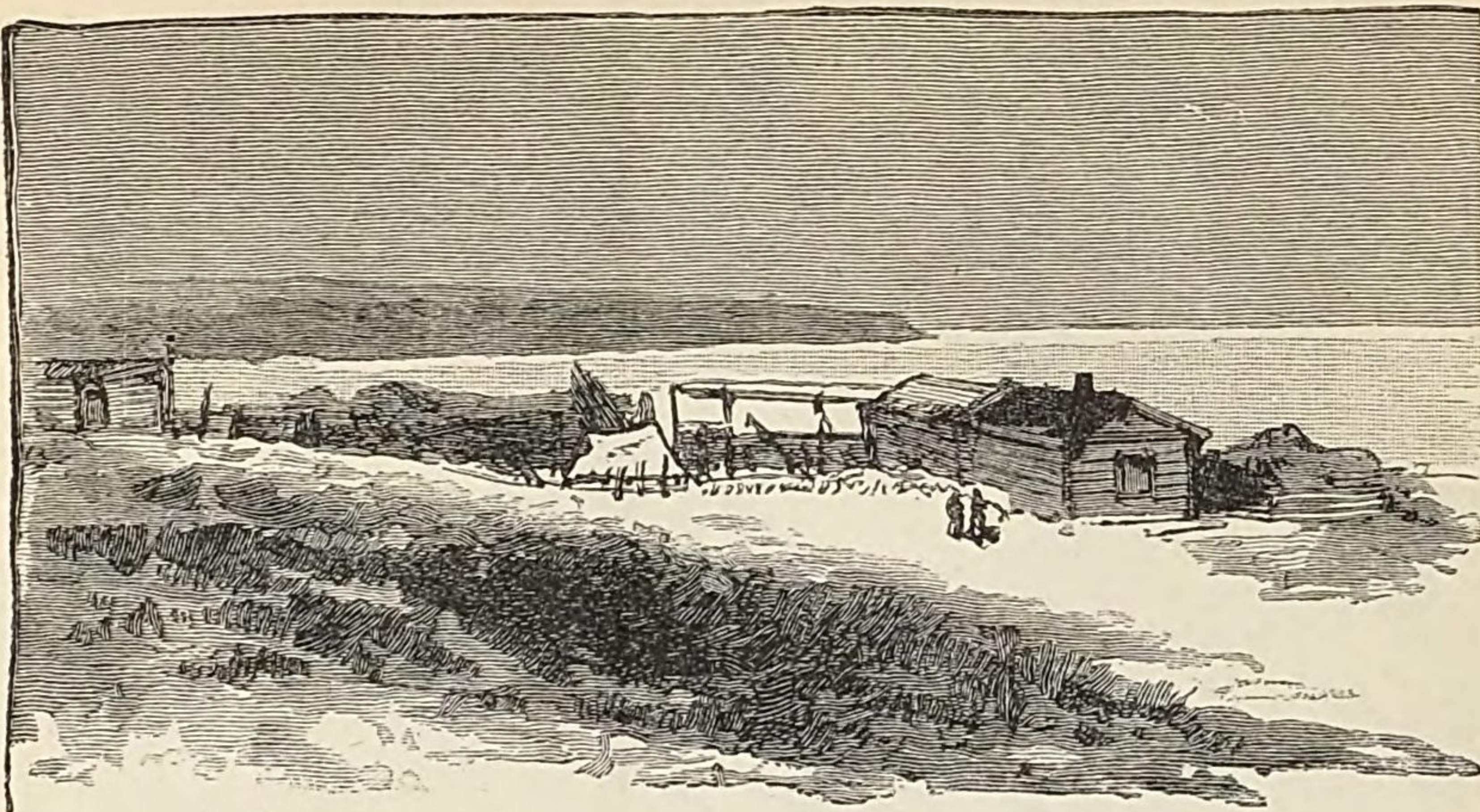


BIDARKA TRAVELLING; READY TO START.
From a photograph by Messrs. Hartmann & Weinland.

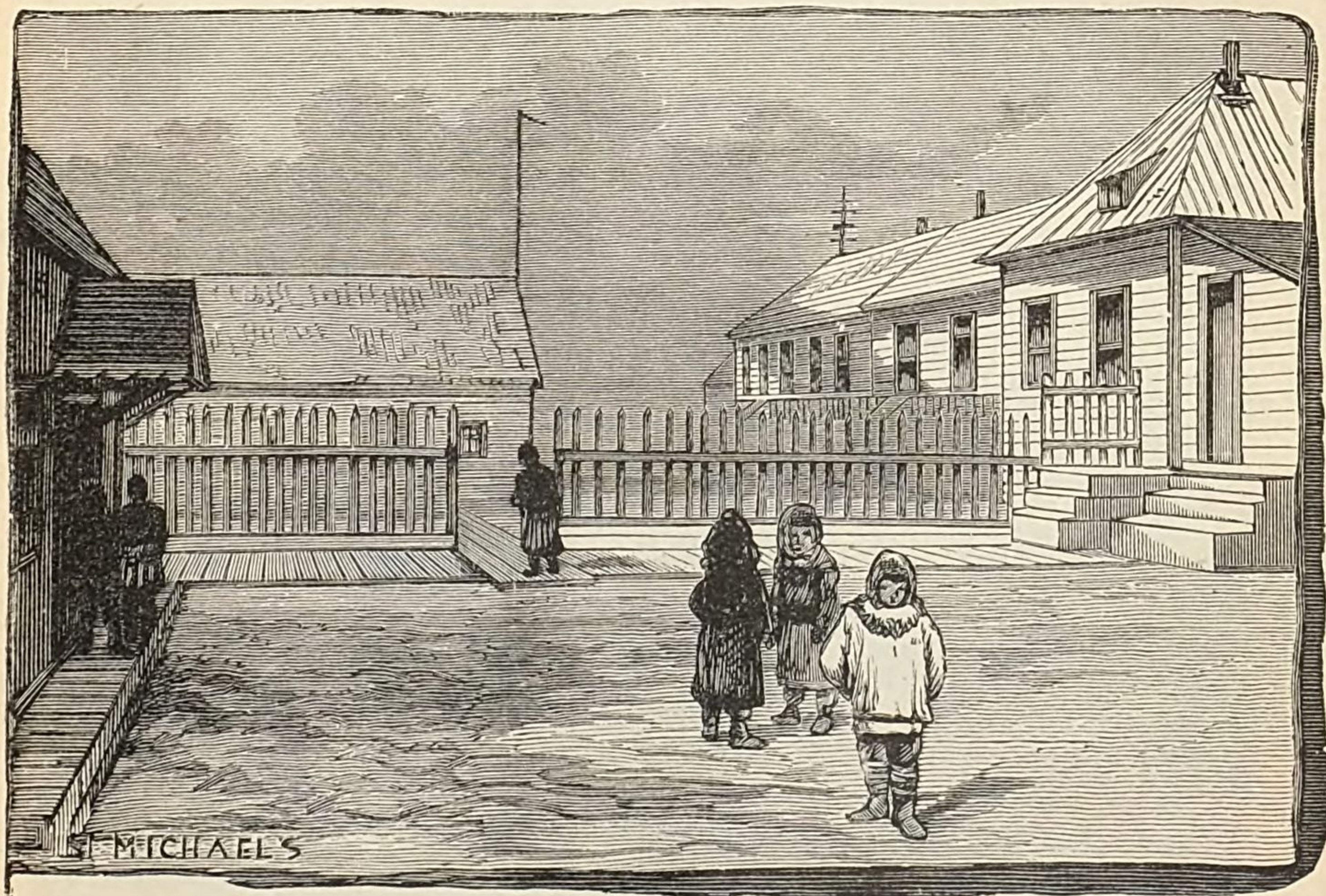


ESKIMO VILLAGE, KIYACK, DOG-SLED, ETC.
From a photograph by Messrs. Hartmann & Weinland.



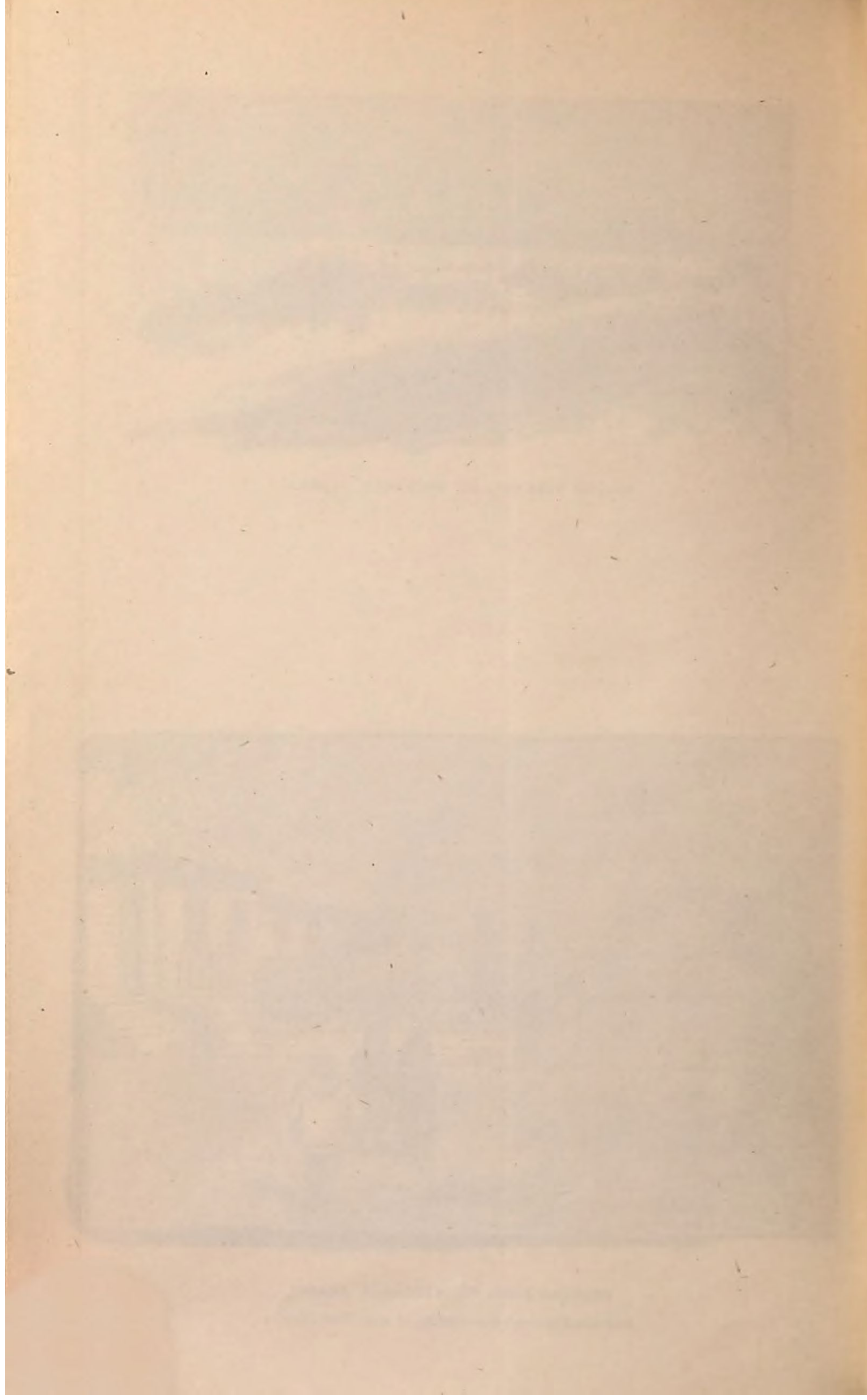


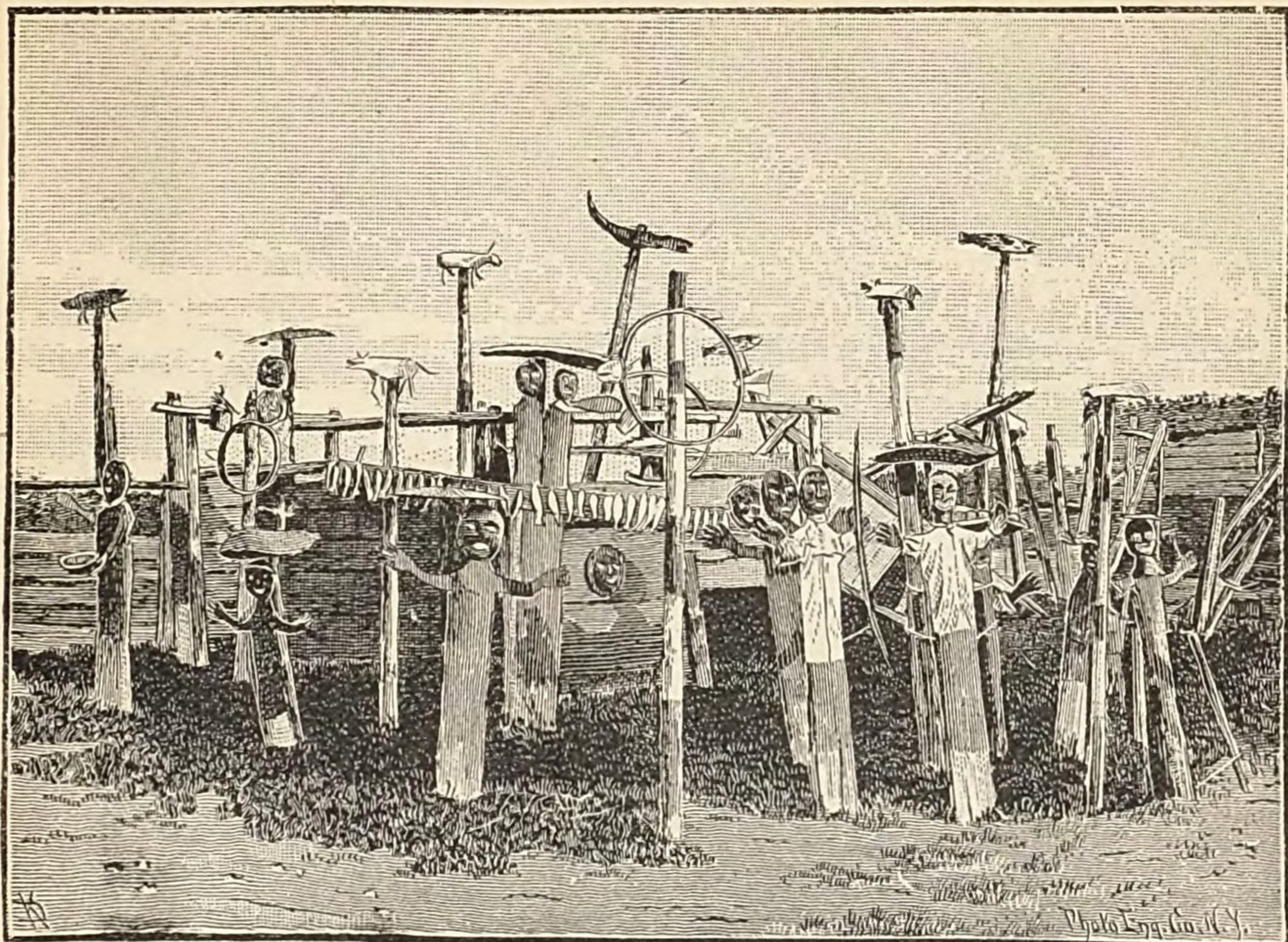
ESKIMO VILLAGE, ST. MICHAELS, ALASKA.



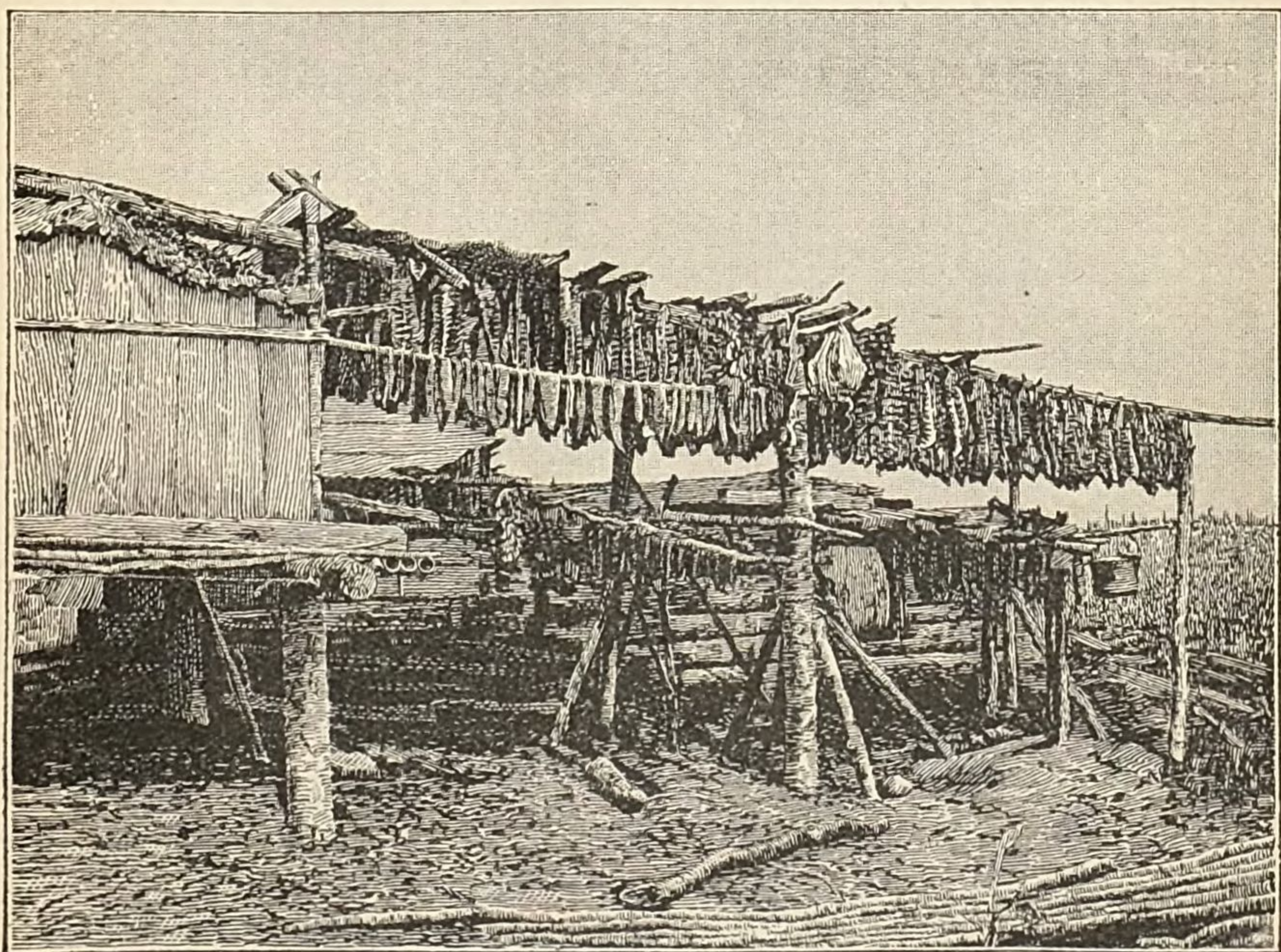
TRADING POST, ST. MICHAELS, ALASKA.

Published through the courtesy of Mrs. Frank Leslie.

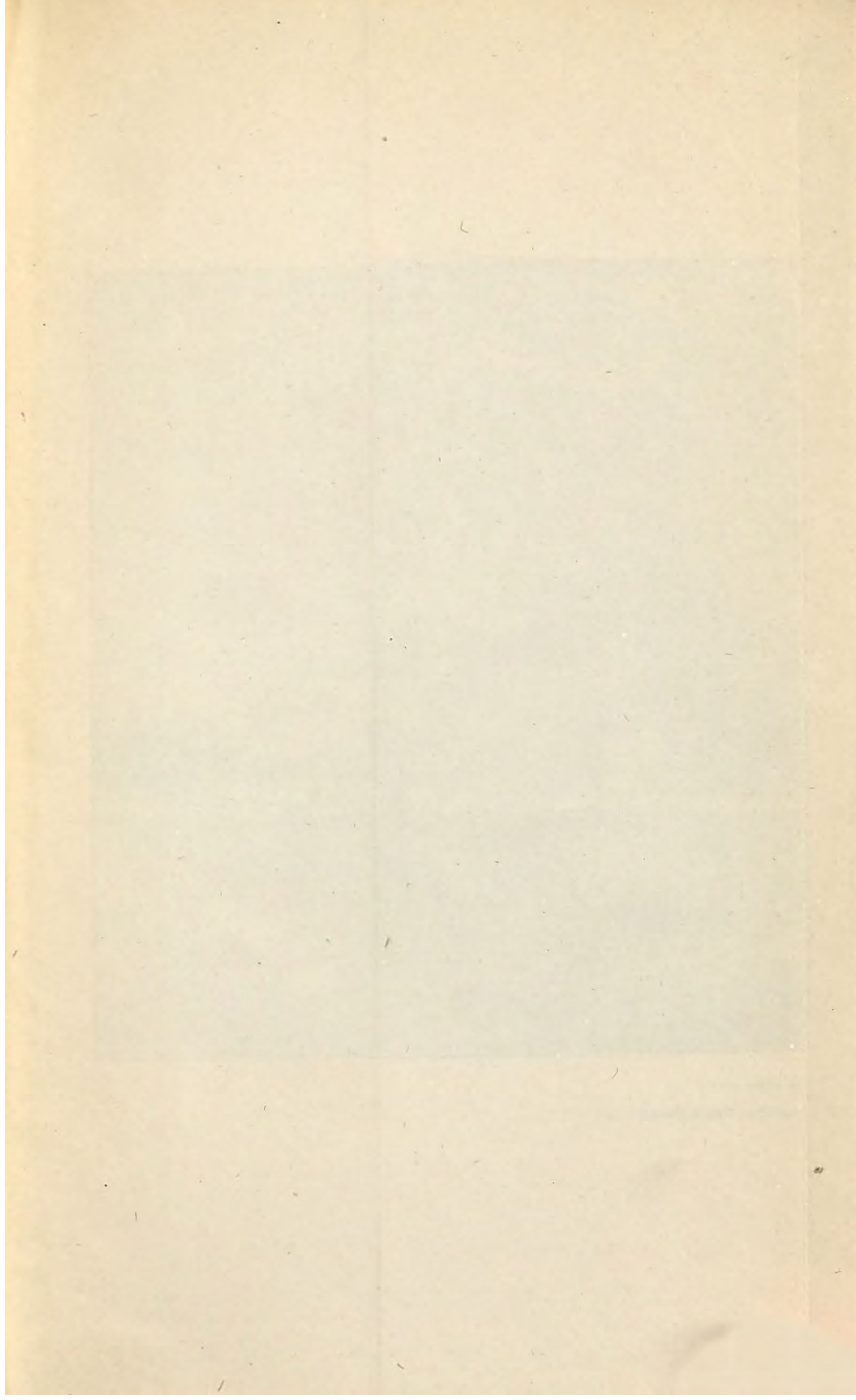




ESKIMO MONUMENTS, KUSKOKWIM RIVER.
From a photograph by Messrs. Hartmann & Weinland.



FRAMES FOR DRYING FISH.
From a photograph by Messrs. Hartmann & Weinland.

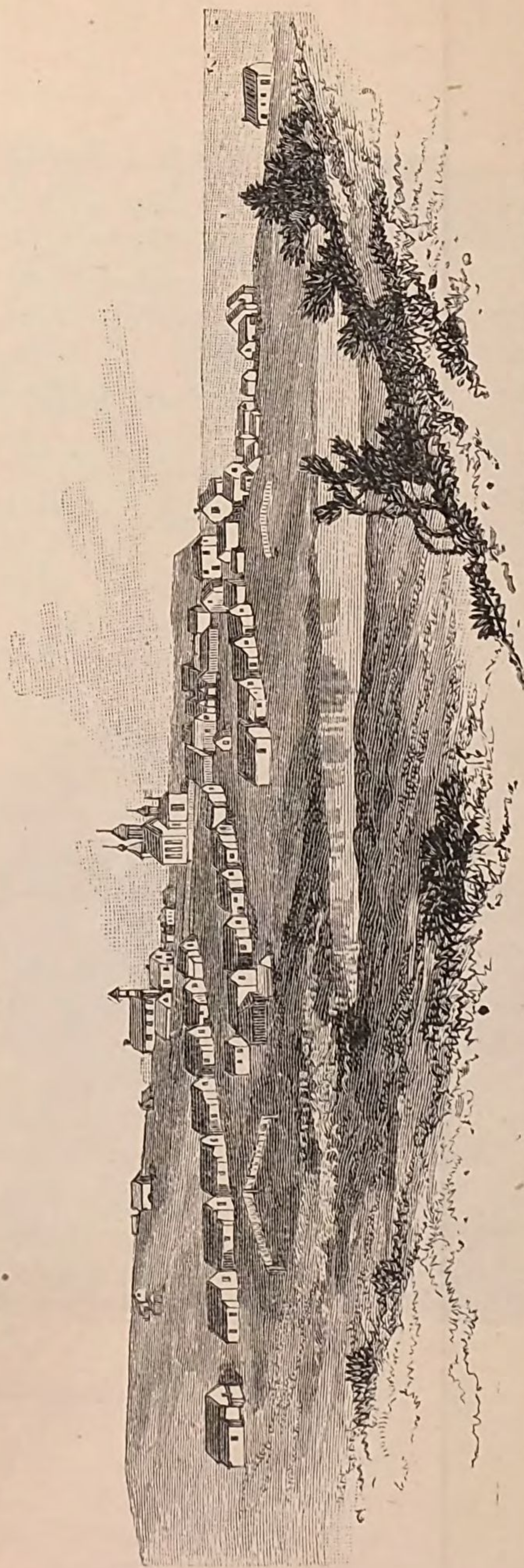




Face page 197—1.

UNALASHKA, ALASKA.

Published through the courtesy of Mrs. Frank Leslie.



School House. Greek Church.

VILLAGE ON THE ISLAND OF ST. PAUL, ALASKA.

Published through the courtesy of Mrs. Frank Leslie.

Aleutian Islands.—The principal settlement and commercial center of the Aleutian Islands is Unalashka.*

This village has a population of 14 white men and 340 Aleuts and creoles. They have a church, priest's residence, the stores, residences, warehouses, and wharves of the Alaska Commercial Company, 18 frame residences and 50 barrabaras. One-half the population can read the Aleutian language. It is the most important settlement in Western Alaska, and the commercial center of all the trade now in that region, or that shall develop in the future. It is the natural outfitting station for vessels passing between the Pacific and Arctic Oceans.

A public school, with an attendance of from 35 to 45, was kept at this village during 1885 and 1886.

Southern Alaska.—In the fall of 1886, as agent of the Bureau of Education, I chartered a schooner at Seattle, Washington Territory, to convey myself and party of teachers with their household and school supplies to Southern Alaska. The round trip consumed 104 days. Prof. John H. Carr and wife were left at Unga, on the Shumagin Islands; Prof. W. E. Roscoe and family, at Saint Paul Harbor, Kadiak; Prof. James A. Wirth and wife, at Afognak Island, and Prof. L. W. Currie and family, at Klawack, on Prince of Wales Island, and a school established at each place.

Industrial training.—Into all the public schools, with the exception of those on the Pribylov Islands, which are not under control of this Bureau, industrial exercises are being introduced as rapidly as possible. Arrangements are already provided by which the girls on two afternoons of each week shall be instructed in sewing and kitchen work, and plans are under way for a similar training of boys in the use of tools. This is but a beginning. As the purpose of the schools is to develop an intelligent and useful citizenship, they will need more and more to extend their industrial facilities. As the people make progress, catch the spirit of civilization, and come under the influences which emanate from the schools, they gradually begin to give up their old methods of living and adopt the American. This is especially the case among the native and semi-civilized population. One by one they saw out openings in the windowless walls of their houses and insert sashes and glasses. One after another purchases a cook stove. No longer content to eat off the floor out of a common iron pot, tables and dishes, knives and forks are procured. Then comes a bedstead, and the bedding is taken from the floor. Warm, comfortable store clothes take the place of the inconvenient, uncomfortable blanket. Thus slowly and gradually, through the influence of the schools, the population is raised in the scale of civilization. But all this creates a necessity for a larger income and more remunerative employments. The income that was sufficient when the family ate off the ground without dishes, cooked over a fire without a chimney, and slept on the floor under skins of wild beasts, is not sufficient to purchase cook stoves, dishes, tables, chairs,

* See illustrations.

bedsteads, &c. Therefore to create the want without enabling them to supply it is only to make them more miserable.

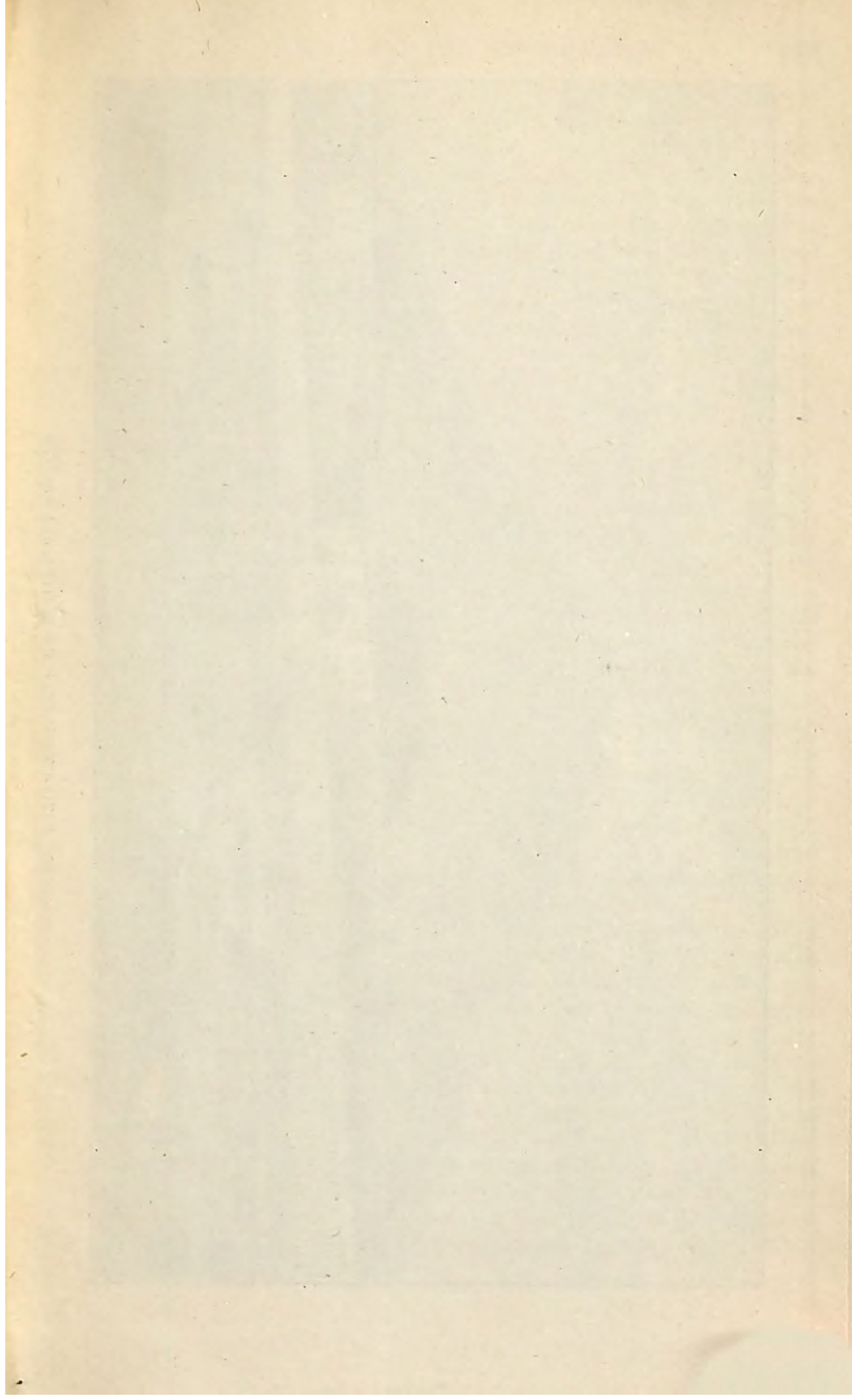
As instruction necessarily creates new wants, and is so intended by the Government, it is but proper that instruction should go farther and so train the hand that the newly created wants can be supplied. Or, in other words, the work of the Alaska school system is not only to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also how to live better, how to make more money in order to live better, and how to utilize the resources of the country in order to make more money.

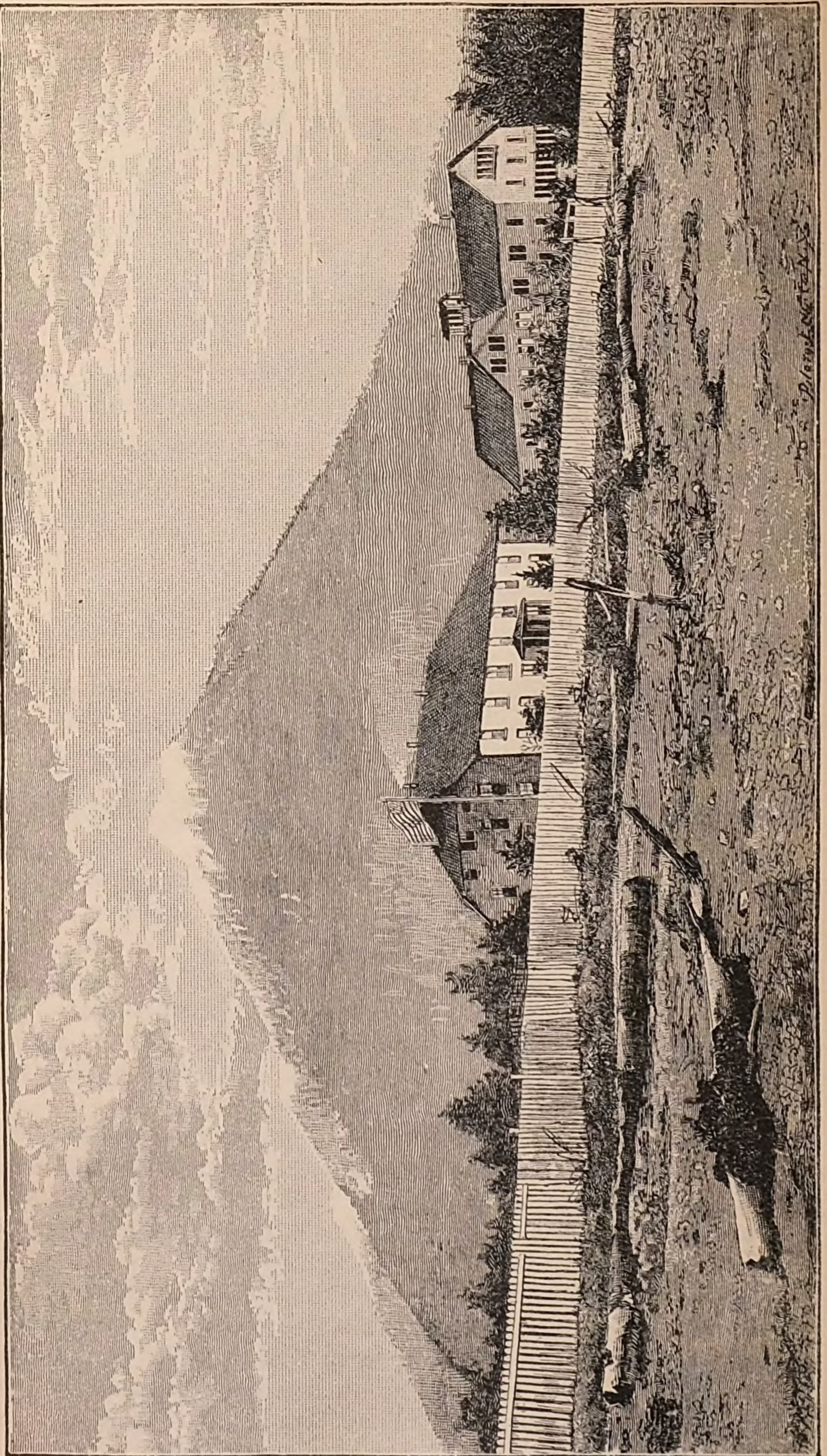
The special resources of Alaska, in addition to her fur-bearing animals, are her vast supply of fish and minerals, and in the southeastern section, great forests. There will also in the southeastern section be more and more the production of garden vegetables and the smaller fruits. Therefore, her schools should eventually teach the best methods of extracting stumps, grading and ditching land and preparing it for cultivation, the vegetables best adapted to the country and the best method of cultivating them, the berries and fruits best adapted to the climate, and how they should be treated, tree planting and drafting, the development of native fruits, also cattle, hog, and poultry raising, and butter and cheese making in regions along the warm southern coast.

The rising young men of Alaska should be taught the cutting and rafting of logs, the running of saw-mills, carpentering, coopering, furniture making, and all kinds of wood-working. To this they will take readily and naturally, for they and their fathers before them have been noted for their skill in certain mechanical arts, the manufacture of canoes, and carving wood, stone and metal with their rude, native tools.

As fish is another of the commercial commodities of the country, and one which will furnish its inhabitants with an ample and reliable means of support, the boys should be instructed in the names, habits, and commercial value of the various kinds of fish found in their waters, improved methods of taking and preparing them for market, the making and mending of nets, the management and repair of boats, rope-splicing and sail-making, swimming and naval drill, with some instructions in the tides and in the use of the compass. They should also be taught how to treat accidents, such as gunshot wounds and drowning.

The girls should be familiarized with the use of kitchen utensils and exercised in the best methods of cooking meats, fish, and vegetables, the preparation of corned, smoked, and pickled meats and fish, the drying and preserving of berries and care of winter vegetables, making yeast and baking bread, the care of milk with butter and cheese making, the proper care of storeroom and pantry, the setting, waiting upon, and clearing off tables, orderly arrangement of furniture and simple adorning of walls, cleaning and care of lamps, cutting and making of clothes, changing, mending, and patching of garments, knitting and darning of socks, practice on the sewing-machine, washing and ironing, making of lye, soft soap, starch, &c.





BUILDINGS, NATIVE TRAINING SCHOOL, SITKA, ALASKA, 1885.

Moral training.—The training of the schools should be extended to the heart as well as mind and hand. In sections of Alaska the uncivilized natives are accustomed to herd in large houses, with several families occupying the same room and cooking around a common fire. Among some of these families polygamy prevails, and sometimes, not often, a woman is found with two or more husbands. The children grow up amid filth and uncleanness, accustomed to impure sights and conversation, and systematically taught to lie and steal. To them there is no wrong or disgrace in it. It is only disgraceful in being caught, as that seems to be a reflection on their skill; they should have been smarter. Nephews inherit their uncle's wives and his property as well, so that many a boy is married to a toothless old aunt. In these same homes are taught, and sometimes even yet practiced, the horrible cruelties of witchcraft.

In some of the schools nearly all the children come from such abodes; and the teacher that would be true to his mission and accomplish the most good must give prominence to moral as well as intellectual instruction. He must try to educate them out of and away from the training of their home lives. They need to be taught that both the law of God and the law of the land forbid more than one man and one woman living together as husband and wife, that each family should have a separate home, however small, that lying, stealing, and impurity of speech and behavior are alike offenses against God and man, and that these vices are not only destructive to society but a disgrace to themselves. The education demanded in Alaska is the moral, intellectual, and physical training of the people at one and the same time—the gradual uplifting of the whole man. All of this may not be attainable at once, or even ultimately in every one of the schools. But a beginning has been made in all of them, and the brightest and most promising children will be advanced into the larger training schools, where they will be taught trades and prepared to earn a competent support.

One such higher school is in existence at Sitka.

Obligatory attendance.—The schools of Alaska are established, with but two or three exceptions, among a half-civilized people. It has long been known in educational circles that the greater the ignorance and the lower the condition of parents, the less they appreciate the importance of education for their children, and the greater the need of outside pressure to oblige them to send their children regularly to school. It is of no use to establish schools if the children do not attend, and many will not attend unless it is made obligatory on them. This is true of many in enlightened communities and much more so in uncivilized ones. If Congress wisely provides school facilities for the children of Alaska, it should go further and make their attendance at those schools obligatory, for in no other way can the best results of the appropriation be secured, and in no other way can the highest interests of the children themselves be subserved.

School buildings.—On account of the small appropriation made for the commencement of schools in Alaska, it was not deemed wise to attempt much in the way of building. As a consequence, not a single Government school in Alaska owns the building it occupies, and, with but two exceptions, not a single school has a comfortable building adapted to its necessities.

Teachers.—Only those of the higher grades of certificates have been employed as permanent teachers. In some instances teachers of less skill have been employed temporarily until others can be procured.

In a few places, where they can have a home in a private family, unmarried ladies have been employed; but in the larger number of places the teacher has been a married man and accompanied by his wife. Especially is this the case in the native villages, where the school aims to lift the whole community out of its old methods into those of civilization. In such communities a well-ordered household is an object lesson of great power.

The most urgent need of the Alaska schools is a more adequate appropriation from Congress.

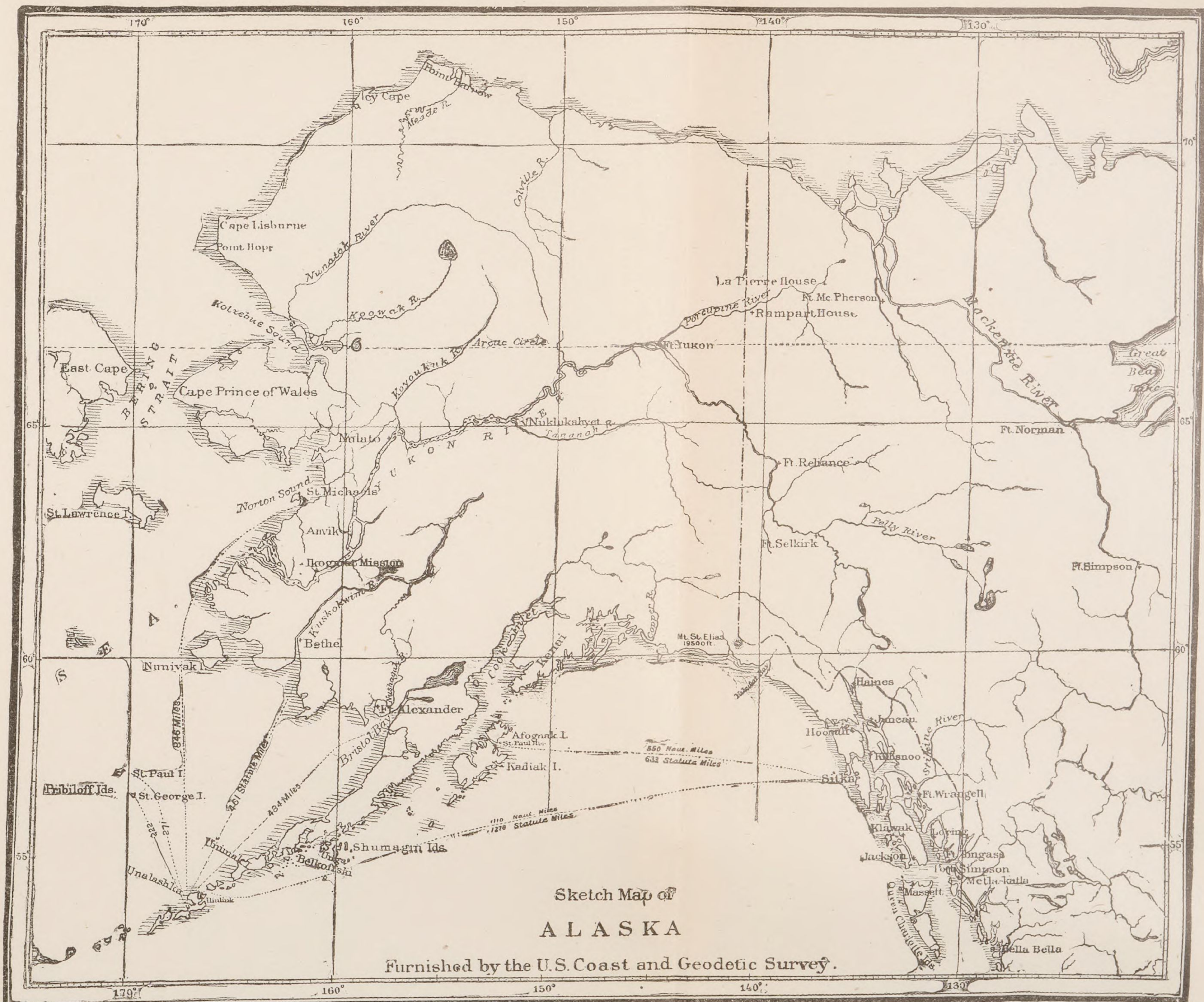
Summary of monthly attendance at the public schools in Alaska, 1885-'86.

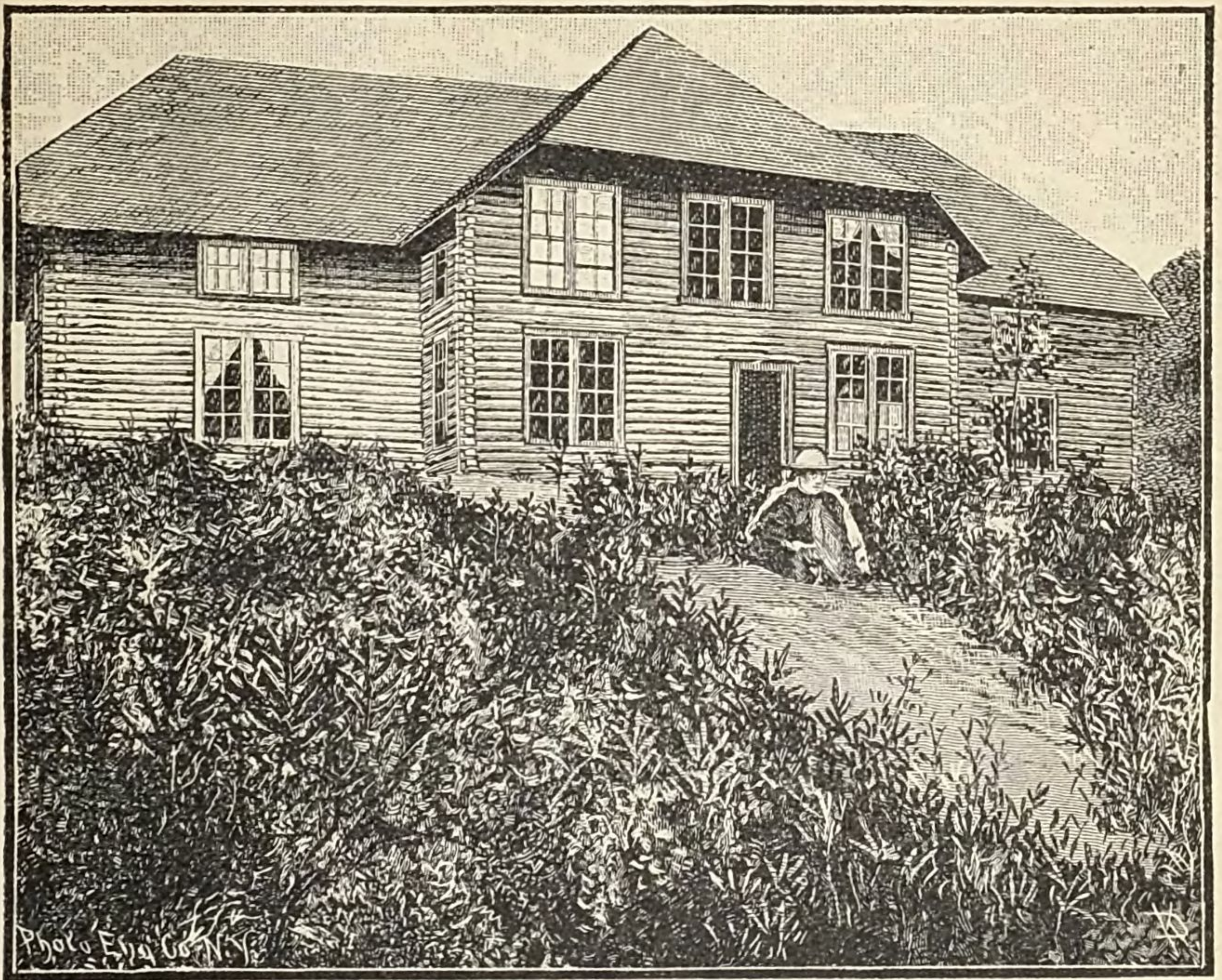
	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
Juneau	34	37	90	76	67	72	74	52	41	32
Sitka No. 1	22	26	34	31	43	44	43	37	51	46
Sitka No. 2				77	77	76	56	56	53	48
Fort Wrangell	41	53	70	69	65	67	47	35	39	33
Jackson	59	78	76	87	77	84	35	30	13	19
Haines	40	77	68	81	84	88	91	166	106	106
Unalashka		45	44	44	44	43	40	36	35	35
Hoonah	39		68	101	117	115	36			
Killisnoo						50	30	24	24	32
Port Tongas						58	58			
Totals	235	316	450	566	574	697	510	386	362	351

Prof. GEORGE E. LITTLE, of Washington, D. C., made some remarks on the cultivation of manual dexterity, which he illustrated by work on the black-board.

The PRESIDENT: I think this closes the work of the convention, and I wish to say in conclusion that as chairman I feel under special obligations to my associate officers, the local committee in Washington, and to the members of the convention for the way in which they have supported me in conducting this convention since its organization. In many respects I trust the meeting has been profitable. As your presiding officer I have tried to discharge my duty faithfully and conscientiously, and now I wish to thank you most cordially and warmly for your support.

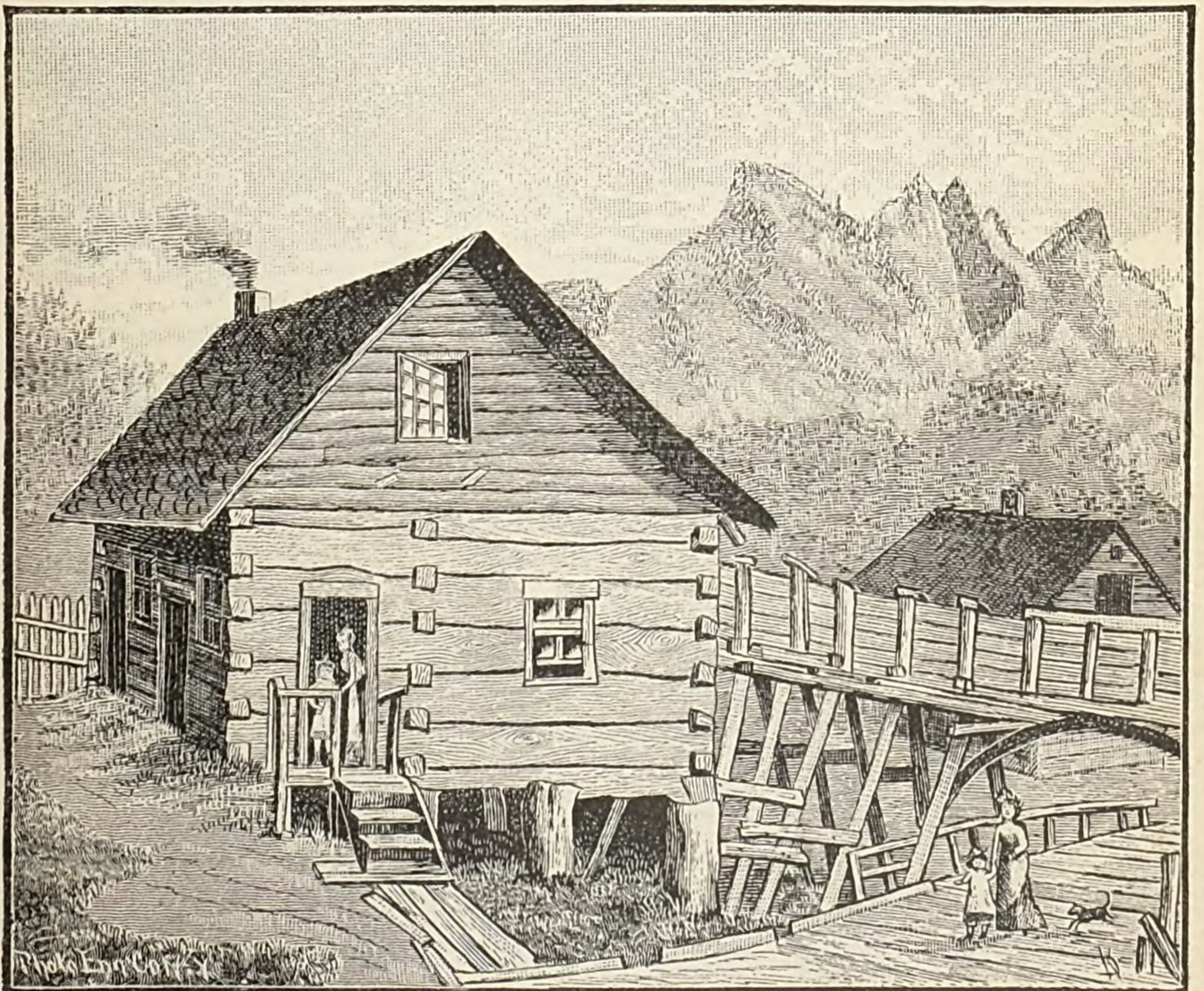
The convention then adjourned to meet again in Chicago with the general association of which it is a department.





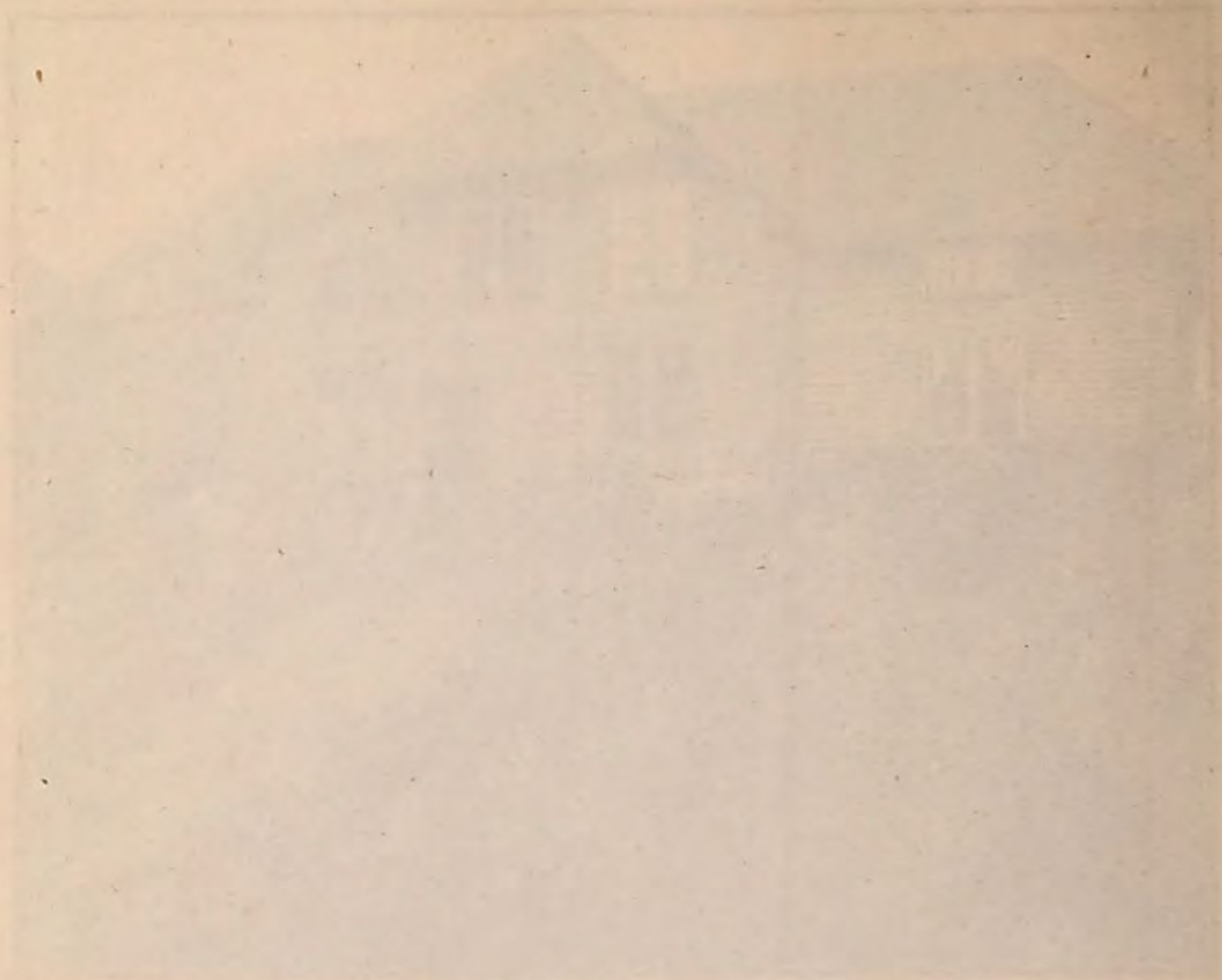
BUILDING USED BY UNITED STATES PUBLIC SCHOOL, HAINES, ALASKA.

From a photograph by Rev. E. S. Willard.

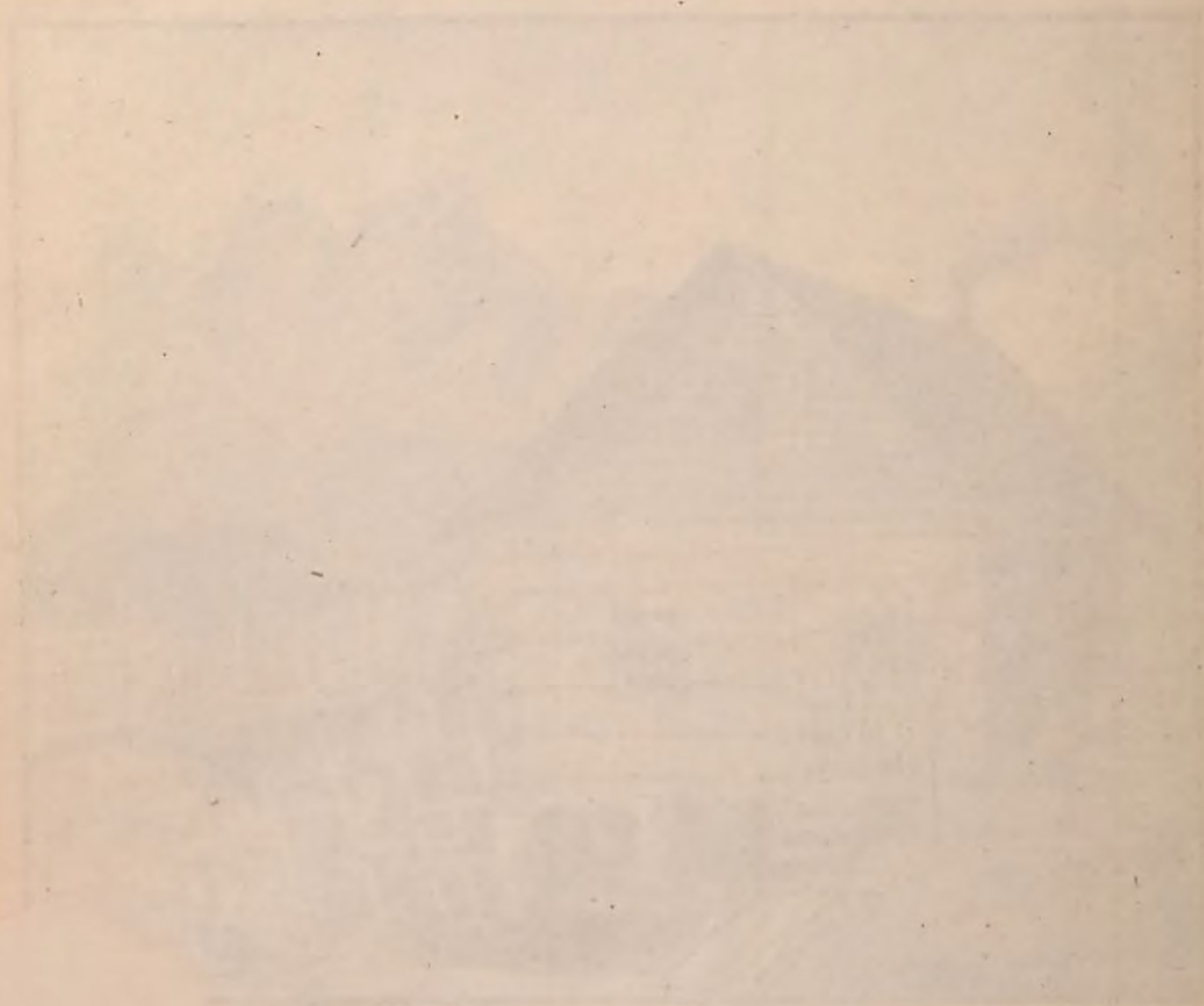


BUILDING USED BY UNITED STATES PUBLIC SCHOOL, SITKA, ALASKA.

From a sketch by Mr. Salomon Ripinsky.



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
LIBRARY



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
LIBRARY

